The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 10, 1890.

The Week.

SPEAKER REED has forced through the Federal Election Bill, as it has been expected that he would do ever since he had it made a caucus measure. Many Republicans were opposed to this policy, but only three had independence enough to array themselves against the bill on the final vote. The measure is one of the most revolutionary in its character ever proposed, inasmuch as it takes the control of the Congressional elections from the States, which have always exercised it, and gives it to appointees of the Federal Government—in other words, of the party in power at Washington. This would be the longest step towards centralization ever taken since the foundation of the Government.

It is gratifying to learn, upon such good Republican authority as the Washington correspondent of the Philadelphia *Press*, that Senators Allison and Aldrich, upon the Republican side, and Mr. Gorman and other Senators upon the Democratic, express the opinion that their branch of Congress will be ready to adjourn by the 1st of August; "and three Republican Senators, who did not care to be quoted, privately expressed the opinion that 'the Election Bill would not be considered by the Senate at this session.'" It is obvious that the bill could not be passed in the Senate without a change of the rules, inasmuch as the Democrats would talk it to death if it should be taken up, and Mr. Edmunds has given notice that the rules shall not be changed so as to infringe upon the present freedom of debate. The idea seems to be to let the House pass the bill and get whatever political credit it is supposed may be thus secured, and then have the Senate assume an air of magnanimity. As "a prominent Republican," quoted by the correspondent of the *Press*, puts it: "It may be that the Republicans will not care to put the Election Bill through the Senate at this session, in order to give the Democrats an opportunity to redeem their promise of fair play at next autumn's elections. They insist that elections in the South are fair, and we will accept next fall's results as a test, putting aside their past well-known record. If, however, the same old means are employed in the South to carry the elections, the Senate next winter can pass the bill." So long as the bill does not become a law, the public will not care much what theories Republican Senators construct to explain their inaction.

The *Valley Virginian*, published at Staunton, and the ablest Republican journal in Virginia, while admitting the constitutional right of Congress to pass a Force Bill, holds that the main question is its expediency—whether anything would be gained by its enactment, and whether it could be enforced were it enacted. This question it proceeds to answer as follows: "We are very sure it would be followed by strife and contention and bloodshed. We know generally who get hurt in such issues. Taking the past as a guide, the record would be a sensation about negro aggression and a 'negro rising,' a conflict in which one or two white Democrats would have their shins skinned and a dozen or two negroes killed, and in the long run as many Democrats elected as has been the case in the past. Indeed, we believe the passage of the Lodge bill would reduce the number of Republican Representatives; throw some of the Southern States into turmoil and disorder; material progress be arrested, and harm generally be effected." The Force Bill was bound to go through the House because Speaker Reed had made up his mind to have it, but such arguments as these of the *Valley Virginian* ought to have some effect in the Senate.

Another "mining camp" becomes a State, the Senate having last week passed the House bill admitting Idaho to the Union. The Republicans in Congress thus add two more votes in the Senate for free silver coinage and against sound money; and when Wyoming is made a State, as it will shortly be, the Republican majority in the Senate will be increased, by the admission of the four new Senators, to fourteen, which it is hoped will prove large enough to offset any possible Democratic gains in that body for at least four years to come.

The Pennsylvania Democrats in their State Convention on July 2 had the wisdom to do exactly what their opponents did not want them to do, and to do precisely what the friends of pure government the country over hoped that they would do. A week ago, in the face of the many influences at work for Wallace—all the forces of Quayism on the Republican side being exerted in that direction—Pattison's nomination seemed improbable. Even his success in Convention is proof that the political immorality which placed the Harrisburg Convention in the control of a public thief, does not sway both parties in Pennsylvania, and if his nomination shall be followed up by his election, Pennsylvania will give Quayism a rebuke such as would not even have been administered by the defeat of Quay's candidate by the Republican Convention. Pattison and Black are a platform in themselves, and the brief resolutions adopted by the Convention cover the issues of the campaign. The Philadelphia *Press*, while conceding that the ticket "is probably the strongest the Democrats could put in the field," says in criticism of Mr. Pattison's course while Governor: "His restless ambition seemed always on the alert to find something in the nature of a corporation at which to strike. That was his capital and stock in trade, and it is *this dangerous and communistic trait*, doubtless, which will be pressed most zealously as his chief claim to public favor." If the Republicans will keep up their defence of Quay (silent or outspoken), and make their attack on Pattison on the ground that his zealous efforts as Governor to compel corporations to observe the Constitution and laws of the State were dangerous communism, there ought to be little doubt about the outcome of the campaign.

The report on the Patent Office just made by a committee of the National Civil-Service Reform League teaches a self-evident lesson. That lesson is, that no Administration can secure the credit and the benefits of a service founded on merit whose reform policy is made up of pieces. President Cleveland, coming into office as he did after his party had been long out of power, and finding nearly every Federal place filled by his political opponents, had a task of the most difficult kind to be consistent as regards the merit system and not stir up a party mutiny. What he did accomplish, therefore, in enforcing that system was doubly valuable as an example. But he detracted from his own good repute in surrendering certain branches of the Government, like the Patent Office, to the spoilsmen, and in every instance of this kind he injured the public service and weakened himself. President Harrison's support of the merit system is rather in the way of an exception than as a rule, the Patent Office being one of the marks to his credit. But no one would think of classing him as a civil-service reformer solely because of these exceptions, with such examples to the contrary as the census, the Wanamaker selection, and his subservience to Quay and the other bosses ever in sight. If the merit system is a good one, it is good for the whole Government service; and if the spoils system is a good one, the whole service ought to have the benefit of that. When we get a President who will hew to this mark, we shall get very near to the solution of the whole problem.

When our Minister to France was here negotiating with his party friends for a little reciprocity treaty with France, in which works of art should be admitted by us free of duty and the French prohibition of American pork products should be removed, he was told that the McKinley Administrative Bill would prove fatal to his project. The cable now informs us that a deputation has waited on M. Roche, the Minister of Commerce, to remonstrate against any relaxation of the French decree against American lard. The Minister replied that the vote on the McKinley Bill had changed the attitude of the Government towards America in a com-

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mercial sense, and that France would not meet America's declaration of economic war by making concessions. That M. Roche referred to the McKinley Administrative Bill is altogether probable, since it is not customary for one Government to refer to the measures of another Government which are pending and incomplete. But whichever bill he may have had in mind, the prosperous negotiation of our Minister, upon the supposed accomplishment of which a banquet was recently given in Paris, is nipped in the bud. M. Roche was candid enough to say that the prohibition of American lard might have been one of the motives for passing the McKinley Bill. We do not think that it was, but if it had been, France would have no right to complain. Both countries are seeking a fool's paradise—striving to get rich by crippling trade. Both are sacrificing the consumer for the sake of the producer, and the many for the benefit of the few. It might be hard to decide which was most to blame.

The failure of Mr. Blaine's appeal for reciprocity with South America to awaken any response or even interest in Congress shows that the dominant party is not likely to be moved by any talk about pork duties or pork prohibition in Europe. What they want is less trade, not more trade. If there could be such a thing as selling without buying, that would suit our statesmen well enough. Senator Hiscock told us the other day how splendidly it would work. But since that cannot be, he prefers a system in which there is a minimum of either selling or buying. The eventual cure for both France and the United States is to be found in the most rigid adherence to the system, and its extension to as many articles of commerce as possible. Its ideal development would be the prohibition of international trade altogether. We hope that France, instead of wasting time in fruitless negotiations, will adopt all the "reprisals" against the McKinley Bill that her ingenuity can devise, and that the two republics may gradually close their ports against each other just as Fooltown and Boytown did in Bastiat's fable. In this way a starting-point may be found for the emancipation of the human intellect in both countries, which is of more importance to them than the selling of pork or of dry goods.

Mr. Columbus Delano celebrated the Fourth of July by issuing in behalf of the wool-growers a pronunciamiento against Senator Hale's amendment to the McKinley Tariff Bill. This amendment is designed to carry out Mr. Blaine's idea of reciprocity with South America. This, Mr. Delano says, "would work absolute ruin"; it would admit clothing-wools free of duty, and "your industry would perish." He warns the wool-growers, also, that other amendments are to be proposed in the Senate which will work a vast deal of harm. One of these amendments is to allow the "sorting" of carpet-wools, which Delano thinks ought to be sternly prohibited. Another proposes to omit "charges" in foreign ports as part of the dutiable value of carpet-wools. If charges are omitted, the dividing line between the two grades of carpet-wool will be lowered, to the great detriment of home industry. "We have thus," continues Delano, "briefly presented the difficulties and dangers which threaten the most important industry of the nation, *and which must be protected if our protective policy survives.*" Here is the point of the stiletto again. Give us what we want, or down comes your whole establishment.

While Mr. Delano was celebrating the Fourth and showing his dagger to the trembling carpet-manufacturers, the French Senate was drawing a knife also, much to the same purpose. It voted a prohibitory duty on Indian corn and corn meal, the same having previously passed the Chamber of Deputies. During the debate on this measure M. Foucher de Careil avowed that the prohibition of pork and that of corn rested on the same basis. Both were intended to protect French agriculture and both were right. M. Millaud called attention to the fact that American pork was only prohibited on account of its alleged unhealthfulness. He declared that that was merely a pretext. Corn could not be unhealthful even if pork was. Nevertheless the bill passed. The next measure will probably be an extra subsidy to the French steamers to compensate them for the loss of corn freights. This would no doubt give new encouragement and a fresh argument to Senator Frye in favor of subsidies to American steamers. First prohibit imports, then pay your ships for running empty, and call the whole thing a Restoration of Commerce. Who shall say that this is not an age of progress?

The State of Kansas is making a hard fight against the authority of the Federal Government. Under the "original-package" decision of the United States Supreme Court, sundry dealers began the sale of liquor in the capital of Kansas, as they undoubtedly have the right to do until Congress passes a bill giving the States authority to interfere with such traffic. The Kansas officials, however, attempted to usurp the power of overruling the Federal Court, and arrested the dealers; the Attorney-General contending that the packages were not "original" because they were small enough to suit retail purposes. This claim was absurd on its face, and Judge Foster of the United States Circuit Court has made short work of it, pointing out that the dissenting judges of the United States Supreme Court had made the scope of the decision and of the law as it now stands very clear, having expressly declared that whiskey and beer might be imported from one State into another and sold by the keg, case, bottle, in any quantity, large or small, provided it remained in the shape in which it was put up for shipment. Kansas has been very emphatic in maintaining that the States must yield to the authority of the Federal Government, but it is a disagreeable surprise to find that she must mind the Supreme Court of the nation when she does not like its orders.

The investigation of the lobby in the Massachusetts Legislature has had a lame and impotent conclusion. The Committee reserved most of its censure for the public-spirited member of the House who brought the scandal to light, and let off the offending corporation with this mild censure: "Although it is true that applicants for important financial legislation have sometimes refused to employ the services of the lobby, and have still succeeded in obtaining what they asked, the Committee is not prepared to find that, under the conditions as they now exist, it would have been reasonable to expect the officers of the West End Company to risk, perhaps, the passage of their bill, by a refusal to employ any lobbyists at all; but the Committee does feel that it cannot but condemn the company for the extent to which it employed persons to influence legislation, and for its lavish expenditure of money for their services." After this, there was, of course, nothing left to do except to pass the corporation's bill, and the Governor's signature was duly affixed. The whole incident constitutes a startling proof of the lowering of legislative standards.

Seeing a chuckling announcement by Wanamaker that he has sold nearly all the copies of the 'Britannica' which he undertook to "handle" and "push," we cannot help asking Dr. Funk whether he has had the same experience, and whether, therefore, his refusal to take any more orders is a real sacrifice on the altar of virtue, and a sign of genuine repentance, or merely a tub thrown to the whale? He has said that he would do nothing more than to execute contracts already made; but would not this be all he ever expected to do? Besides this, we must observe to him that contracts for the delivery of stolen goods are not valid in law, because they are *contra bonos mores*. He has, therefore, nothing to fear from a refusal to carry them out, so far as the courts are concerned, while he has much to fear for his moral standing if he continues to carry them out. All good men would applaud his repudiation of them. Nobody believes in a man's repentance as long as they see the money from his sin going into his bank account.

The canvass made by a correspondent of the *Evening Post* of the Philadelphia and Pittsburgh clergymen about the Quay matter has shown that none of them had any intention of denouncing Quay from the pulpit. This was not to be expected; but it was desirable to notify them directly that the secular world was deeply moved by the fact that the man who was principally instrumental in putting Mr Harrison, an Elder of the First Presbyterian Church in Indianapolis, in the Presidential chair, and to whom large sums, to be used for that purpose, were confided by John Wanamaker, the Proprietor and Superintendent of the Bethany Sunday-school, and a conspicuous Presbyterian exhorter, had no defence to a charge of theft

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from the public treasury. This is important because the Harrison Administration has been much helped in certain circles by the religious professions and activities of the President and his Postmaster-General, and because the clergy took a very active part in trying to discredit the last Administration by the circulation of stories intended to depreciate Mr. Cleveland personally. Their reluctance to discuss politics in the pulpit is very defensible, but it must not be supposed that this always indicates a position of neutrality and detachment outside the pulpit. On the contrary, ministers have of late years, through private gossip, exerted a very strong and very unfortunate influence on public opinion about public men. The inquiries were more than ordinarily useful in Pennsylvania, owing to the muzzled condition of the Republican press in that State, the like of which, we think, has never been seen in a free community, unless we call the Southern States during the days of slavery free communities. The correspondent found some ministers who had never heard of the charges against Quay, owing to their confining their newspaper-reading to two newspapers, one of them, we regret to say, a journal which we greatly respect—the *Ledger*.

The election at Barrow-in-Furness, in England, which took place last week, was an extremely important one, as foreshadowing the fate of the Liberal Unionists in case Parliament should be dissolved. The vacancy was occasioned by the resignation of the sitting member, Mr. Caine, for the express purpose of taking the opinion of his constituents on his recent course in Parliament. Caine was elected in 1885 as a Gladstonian, but in 1886 as a Liberal Unionist. He is an able man, and very prominent as a temperance advocate and as a foe of the publicans. But he seceded with Chamberlain and the others on the home-rule question, and continued to give the Tories faithful support till they brought in their License-Compensation Bill. This was more than he could stand, and he joined in the opposition which led to their recent abandonment of that measure. His situation thus became so complicated that he thought it behooved him to find out what his constituents thought about it. He accordingly offered himself for reëlection, and the result was watched with great interest. Caine was one of the least objectionable of the seceders. He had not been rancorous or abusive of Gladstone, and had not given himself airs about his superior morality, and he had strong hopes that, as he had turned against the Tories, the Liberals would take him up again and return him once more. To his great chagrin he found them implacable. They would not renominate him; nor would they refrain from nominating a third candidate, even at the risk of giving the seat to the Tories. They ran a new out-and-out Gladstonian, and not only beat the Tory candidate, but put Caine at the foot of the poll. Of course this will cause a fearful looking for of judgment among his brethren of the Hartington persuasion.

The importance of the London police strike is mainly political. We believe its only precedent is a threat to strike made by the Dublin city police in 1882, during the troubles following on the Phœnix Park murders, and for similar reasons—the hardness of the work and the poorness of the pay. The Dublin police were, however, brought to reason before they actually struck, and were probably restrained by the fact that their places could have been readily supplied, temporarily at least, by the constabulary, the semi-military force which polices the country districts. Of course London could also have been temporarily taken care of by the troops and by the swarm of "special constables," who always offer themselves on such occasions from among the sporting men and athletes with whom the British capital at this season abounds, and who are always eager for a chance to cudgel somebody. What has precipitated the crisis is the fact that the Chief Commissioner, Mr. Monro, who has just resigned, sympathized with the grievances of the men, and had to resign because he could not convince Mr. Mathews, the Home Secretary, of the justice of their demands. Of course this gave a great deal of substance to the discontent and spurred the men on into overt demonstrations. They were probably still farther exasperated by the fact that the new Commissioner is a military man, whose whole experience as a commander has been acquired in India, and who is, therefore, expected to subject the force to a harsher and more arbitrary discipline than has hitherto been known in an English civil force. But, although the House of Commons accepted Mr. Mathews's explanation of his differences with Mr. Monro as satisfactory, the disturbance can hardly fail to increase the discredit into which the Ministry is falling, and under which Mr. Mathews in particular has long lived. Frightened shopkeepers do not try to distribute blame impartially, and they will probably set down the demoralized condition of the police force as another of Mr. Mathews's blunders.

Among the disagreeable surprises turned up in the report on the Panama Canal is a statement that some of the contractors, whose names are given, received payment for 100 to 150 per cent. more work than they had done, but were not required by the Judicial Administrator to repay any of the money overdrawn. The report says also, in a comprehensive way, that the amount of money raised was 1,530 million francs, of which there was an effective expenditure of only 700 millions. In other words, something less than one-half of the money contributed by the French peasants, shopkeepers, and chambermaids was actually spent on the canal. But it makes little difference whether it was wasted in one way or the other. The fact that some of the contractors had been largely overpaid was known in New York before the work was stopped. Those thrifty individuals saw that the end was coming. They considered that they had a vested right to a certain aggregate amount of profit. They reasoned that it would be a waste of capital to prolong the digging after abandonment of the work had become inevitable. Indeed, the whole affair looks now like a prearranged swindle—the most gigantic one the world ever saw. M. de Lesseps himself may have been one of the victims of it.

A sudden and as yet unexplained change of Ministry, on the eve of a general election, occurred in Spain on July 5, bringing the Conservatives and extreme protectionists into power, with Canovas del Castillo at their head. It was this event which Castelar, on giving in his positive adhesion to the Liberal cause, recently declared would be a calamity for Spain. The present state of Europe, he says, calls more than ever for the application of that political paradox which demands that republics be ruled by monarchists, and monarchies by republicans. Since France has left off something of its narrow Republicanism, and given a share in its Government to an Orleanist like Ribot, and a believer in central power like Constans, the stability of the republic, Castelar thinks, has been made much greater. For analogous reasons, the Spanish monarchy ought to seek its expansion on the Left, as a conservative monarchy would be a hindrance to the development of the people, and a prematurely realized republic would run everything off the track. Both reason and patriotism, then, in Castelar's opinion, call for a strengthened Liberal administration. If this should be secured, Ruiz Zorrilla would return from his voluntary exile, and, abandoning his revolutionary programme, thus proved chimerical, would lead the small band of Radical Monarchists, while nearly all the Republicans would give in their adherence to the Liberal régime.

Only a few days after these utterances were made public, on June 5, 500 Republicans met in the Alhambra Theatre, to form a new Republican party. The leading spirit of the gathering was the veteran Salmerón, and the lines upon which the new party was to be organized marked it off at once from the revolutionists on the one hand and the Castelar type on the other. Indeed, not a little bitterness towards the apostasy of the latter, as it was called, appeared in the speeches, and the meeting itself was in a sort a protest against his assertion that the Republicans as a party had no mission in Spain. Salmerón summed up the four hours' speaking, and marked out the objective points of the new organization, namely, the abolition of a hereditary Senate with life tenure, emancipation of the House of Deputies from Executive domination, home rule in provinces and municipalities, abolition of the spoils system and bosses, reform in the methods of legal procedure, and a new Constitution admitting of amendments, as the present one does not. He declared, in conclusion, for union with Portugal, and said that the labor question could be solved by a republic alone.

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THE SILVER COMPROMISE.

THE report of the Conference Committee on the Silver Bill contains some features that were not embraced in either the House or the Senate bill, and that tend to make it a better measure than either of them. These may be enumerated as follows:

(1.) It is declared to be the "established policy of the United States to maintain the two metals on a parity with each other upon the present legal ratio, or such ratio as may be established by law." This amounts to a direction to the Secretary of the Treasury to keep the two kinds of dollars at par with each other; in other words, to maintain the gold standard. Since the Resumption Act of 1875 requires the Secretary to redeem United States notes in coin continuously on and after January 1, 1879, and gives him unlimited power to sell bonds for that purpose, this additional direction suffices to maintain the gold standard as long as the credit of the United States suffices for the purpose. If the silver-men intended to force the silver standard upon the country, their purpose is foiled by this provision.

(2.) The Secretary is not absolutely required to coin more than $2,000,000 per month of silver, and this requirement is to cease on the 1st of July, 1891. Thereafter he will coin only so much as may be needed to redeem silver Treasury notes presented for the purpose. Another provision repeals the present two-millions per month law from the date of the passage of this act, while this act does not go into effect until the expiration of thirty days. Thus at least one month of the two-millions law is cut off, leaving eleven months of absolute coinage at that rate.

(3.) The bill does not require the purchase of 4,500,000 ounces of silver absolutely, being limited by the words, "or so much thereof as may be offered in each month at the market price thereof." The determination of the market price is necessarily left to the Secretary, and if he exercises his discretion impartially, there will be no reason why silver bullion should be offered to him rather than to any other purchaser.

(4.) The silver Treasury notes are a new and distinct form of currency, differing from silver certificates in some particulars. They are to be legal tender, while silver certificates are not. The national banks are not required to receive them on deposit, but if they do receive them, they may count them as part of their lawful reserves. Looking at all the features of the bill, including the one which directs the Secretary to maintain the gold standard, we perceive no reason why the banks should not receive the notes on deposit, like any other current funds.

(5.) The Treasury will buy silver bullion at the market price and pay for the same in Treasury notes, making the same profit that it now makes on silver certificates. If the amount of silver offered is no more than sufficient to meet the requirements of the public for circulation, there will be no drain on the Treasury. If the offerings should exceed the public demand for circulation, the drain on the Treasury would be measured by the excess, and the Secretary might be compelled to sell bonds to replenish his gold balance. The act of 1882 establishing the greenback-redemption reserve of $100,000,000 gold remains unrepealed. Logically, all the acts taken together require the Secretary to sell bonds to replenish this fund whenever it is reduced below $100,000,000. It is not impossible that resort may be had to this power before President Harrison's term expires, especially if the requirements for new pensions exceed the estimates of the Pension Committee of the Senate, viz., $43,000,000.

Looked at from the standpoint of the science of finance, the bill is tremendously absurd, but that is not the true point of view. The bill is a compromise of conflicting whimsies and conflicting interests. We doubt whether the Senate will accept it, but if it does so, the country may be congratulated on not getting a worse measure.

SENATOR FRYE ON SUBSIDIES.

IN his speech in favor of steamship subsidies Senator Frye relied upon two assumptions: first, that those nations which have outstripped us in maritime progress have achieved success by means of donations from their governments to private ship-owners; second, that American wages and style of living prevent us from competing with foreigners, since sailors determine their own pay and subsistence not by the amount or kind of work done, but by reference to the flag flying over their heads. On the latter point he was severely "winged" by Senator Morgan, who said he understood the argument to be that, inasmuch as our ship-owners cannot afford to pay the difference between foreign wages and American wages, we must collect the money out of the people to pay the difference. To this Mr. Frye replied brokenly:

> "Well, that is hardly a logical conclusion, I take it, from what I said; because the higher wages and the increased cost of living do not account for this enormous difference. I say we have no protection for our ships. If anything, we are discriminated against by our nation in this matter of carrying the mails. The Senator knows it is true that we are not paying the actual cost of carrying the mails to-day; that these foreign countries, in addition to paying lower wages for their sailors and their officers and a lower cost of living, have these enormous subsidies, and those, coupled with the other things, make the difference which I have stated."

Mr. Frye had much to say about the want of protection to our ships, and about the protection extended to foreign ships by their governments, but did not define the meaning of protection. The received economic meaning of the phrase is the enactment of laws which compel or impel the citizen who wishes to buy anything, to buy it of an American instead of a foreigner. As applied to navigation, it would require the establishment of toll roads to the docks at all seaports, and compel passengers and shippers to pay something for the privilege of going or sending their goods on board a foreign ship, while allowing them free access to the American ship. This is the only thing that is entitled to be called by the sacred name of protection. But this is not what Mr. Frye meant. Nor did he mean merely pay for carrying the mails when he said protection. He meant subsidy, and he meant to say also that it was subsidy that had enabled other countries to outstrip us in the ocean carrying trade.

It would not be profitable to thresh over the old straw of British and French subsidies. The question whether Great Britain does or does not pay subsidies may be answered either way without touching the question whether subsidies are the cause of her maritime supremacy. It is acknowledged that France does pay subsidies, but it is denied that they have been of any advantage to her shipping or to her commerce. There is one country, however, that has confessedly made great strides in the ocean carrying trade without subsidies, namely, Norway. She is now only second to Great Britain as a maritime Power, and is supplying us with a larger proportion of our hired steam marine than any other country. A few days ago a statement was published that forty-five Norwegian steamers were under charter to American merchants during the months of May and June, 1890, carrying goods to and from Central and South America and the West Indies, and of course without any subsidy, large or small. We adverted also to the fact that the little town of Bergen has 119 steamers engaged in the ocean carrying trade, all making satisfactory profits without any governmental aid.

These facts effectually rebut the assumption that foreign nations have achieved maritime importance by reason or in consequence of subsidies. Subsidies they may have, but it does not follow that their shipping as a whole is benefited thereby. The Hamburg-American Line is a case in point. This company runs to New York, the West Indies, Mexico, and South America. It has no subsidy, and wants none, yet it is a prosperous line, and is constantly adding to its magnificent fleet. German subsidies, so far as any are paid, are coupled with conditions which leave no profit to the subsidized line. The ships are bound by iron-clad rules as to times of sailing, as to ports to be touched, as to rate of speed, etc., and these rules are enforced by fines for any deviation or shortcoming. In the same way the British mail steamers are held rigidly to the terms of contract. They are subjected also to competition with the steamers of all other countries in the bidding for contracts, and this fact alone takes the mail payments out of the category of subsidies. Senator Frye cannot fairly point to Great Britain in justification of his measure unless he admits British, Norwegian, and German steamers to competition with our own in mail-carrying, and awards the contracts to the lowest bidder. But this is no part of his plan. The plan is simply another raid on a Treasury already threatened with a deficit.

CONCIO AD CLERUM.

Now that the popular conscience is in a way to be aroused upon the subject of copy-

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right, it is of the greatest importance that there should be no misunderstanding of the nature of the proprietary right involved. Fortunately, it happens that this right, far from being mysterious and questionable, is one of the clearest and simplest with which jurisprudence can deal, and is, moreover, exactly defined by the term in common use, "copyright." It is the right to copy, to imitate, to consciously repeat what has already been done, and negatives the idea of originality in labor, in thought, or in discovery. The expression "property in ideas" is a peculiarly unfortunate one to apply to this right. It implies either that the holder of copyright and his assigns are the only persons entitled to think certain thoughts, to entertain certain ideas, or that they alone may practically apply the thoughts or make use of the ideas. Neither of these implications has the slightest support in the facts of the case.

This expression is not improperly applied to the right conferred by letters patent, which is of an entirely different character from copyright. Nothing but confusion can result from attempting to consider the two rights together. The holder of a patent cannot, it is true, prevent others from thinking his thoughts and having his ideas, but he can prevent them from making any practical use of these thoughts and ideas. He can prevent them from moving portions of matter in a particular manner—that is, in conformity to certain ideas; and as all labor consists in moving matter, he has a legal monopoly of certain modes of labor. Property in material things exists when one person may move certain portions of matter in such ways as he chooses, to the exclusion of other persons, but this right, though called absolute, is subordinate to patent right. The owner of a patent, it is true, would not be able to use it unless he were at the same time the owner of matter; but the owner of matter may not use it in any novel manner if this novel use has been patented. There may have been a hundred men working independently, to each of whom the same idea would have occurred at almost the same time, but the one that patents it may forbid the rest of mankind from applying it in the use of their property. The idea may have come to the discoverer by accident, and without labor on his part, while accident has prevented those who sought for it from finding it; that makes no difference with his legal right. The invention may have been one that every one would have thought of when a certain stage of invention was reached, but the man that gets a patent on it holds it against the world. The application of the idea might relieve hundreds of thousands of men from burdensome toil; it might save many from suffering, some from death; but the law gives to one man absolute power to forbid every human being from enjoying the fruits of this knowledge.

If we turn to copyright, we see at once that it confers no such monopoly. The ideas contained in a copyrighted book are no one's property. They may be every one expressed in other words, which may be printed and published; they may be memorized; they may be applied to any use by any person, and the right of the author is not infringed. By this right no human being is prevented from making any use of his mind or of his property that he pleases, while it may suggest to him novel uses of both. By it no man is hindered from doing what he would have done did it not exist. No man can say that by it he is deprived of the use of any of the advantages that Nature has to offer to her children, or restrained in the use of any of the faculties that God has given him. As to property in ideas, in themselves, it is plain that they are not limited in quantity and not susceptible of appropriation; and as to property in the application or use of ideas, it is plain that copyright does not confer it.

Every objection that has ever been raised in any quarter to the right of property rests ultimately upon the ground that the subject of property—matter—is, in relation to the possible owner—the present or future generations of men—limited in quantity. Hence, the possession of one may necessitate the exclusion of another who, on the assumption of the equal rights of mankind, is entitled to his share of the common heritage. In short, the whole pother arises from the fear that there may not be enough matter to go around. No such objection can be raised against copyright. That right simply means that if a man has arranged words in a certain order, no other man shall arrange the same words in the same order. Now, although the number of words is limited, the number of possible combinations of words is, compared with the numbers of mankind, practically infinite. If all the writers of English since the language was written had been steadily writing down to the present day, not one of them would have written the words of one of Shakspere's sonnets in the order that Shakspere wrote them, unless he copied from Shakspere. If all the human beings that ever existed were to write from the creation of the world to the crack of doom, the probability that any one of them would, without copying, produce "In Memoriam," or even a single stanza of it, is about as great as that of the earth's presently colliding with one of the other planets. But if there is no possibility of the right of one excluding the equal right or another, copyright involves no interference with natural liberty.

Why, then, is copyright not acknowledged without question? Because of the natural rapacity of mankind. Covetousness will not suffer it. Property in material things became established in illiterate days by the might of its possessors. The conception of right in an arrangement of words would have seemed absurd when our fundamental laws were formed, and authors have never had the physical power to enforce their claims to a species of property that is peculiarly difficult to protect. As a result, those men whose glory is imperishable, whose services to mankind are perennial, who have added to our poor human life an ideal counterpart that has been a refuge for all who are overcome by the miserable reality, have been compelled to beg from their rulers some temporary shelter from the baseness of human ingratitude. They have enriched the world, and have been robbed for doing it. They have labored for the delight of others, and have been told with a malignant irony that on that account they should ask nothing for themselves. They claim no monopoly. They do not, like the laborer upon matter, appropriate what may be needed by others. They do not, like the inventor, prevent others from making use of the common gifts of nature. Their material—language—is not exhausted, but strengthened by their use of it; it is enriched and not impoverished for posterity. Their appropriation of words is as harmless to others as the appropriation of light by their eyes or music by their ears. They ask for no property in ideas; they write that others may share them; but they do ask that sneaking curs, without pretence of excuse except their greed, may not purloin the product of their labors. It is not very much to ask, for it is even doubtful if it would cost the public anything to grant it. It would, perhaps, amount only to the payment of the price of a book to the man whose labor produced it, instead of to the rascal who stole it from him.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT OF TO-DAY IN JAPAN.

Tokio, May, 1890.

There is an amusing illustration of the way in which, in the early days, say 1873, the new ideas were carried out. At an election in Shimane *ken* for school officials, one of the countrymen refused to vote because he knew no one whom he thought worthy. The Governor insisted that he must vote, whereon he cast his ballot for the Governor himself. Enraged at being considered low enough for such a position, the insulted Governor ordered the offender to prison. The man appealed, however, and was released by the Government, who severely rebuked the touchy official. New institutions could not be made to work smoothly in a day, and from the state of things at that period much progress had to be made. Taking our stand at the present time, let us look briefly, first, at the people themselves, secondly, at their assemblies.

In the year 1880, an acute writer, Nishi Sensei, published an essay in which, analyzing the Japanese character, he noted two great influences, one political—the despotism of feudalism—and one moral—the Confucian principle of obedience to superiors; and two minor ones—the fidelity of the *samurai* to his lord, and the national complaisance of behavior—the combined effect of which was inevitably a deep-seated spirit of political inertness, of obsequiousness to authority, which formed the great obstacle to the success of representative government. That such has been a characteristic of the mass of the people is undoubted. To what extent have they risen out of it?

So far as comparative statistics of elections are of value, we are left with little material to judge from. Strange to say, neither the Home Department nor the *ken* offices have kept a systematic record of the voting figures since 1878. In Niigata *ken*, however, this has been done, and the Governor, Mr. Chida, has kindly sent me these figures:

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	Electors.	Votes cast.	Per cent.
1880.....	51,088	27,732	54
1886.....	52,949	22,403	42
1890.....	48,932	30,122	61

It seems difficult, however, to draw any general conclusions, as the following figures from two *gun* (counties) show: (1.) Percentage in 1880, 22; in 1886, 44; in 1890, 68. (2.) Percentage in 1880, 48; in 1886, 43; in 1890, 29. Probably the explanation lies as a rule in local causes, each community having an electoral history of its own. So far as I can judge from reliable testimony apart from statistics, the last four or five years have seen a distinct advance in the interest taken by the mass of the people in the management of their affairs. Officials from various sections tell me that at present the vote does not as a rule fall below 50 per cent. of the electorate, while in many places, where cause for special interest exists, it runs as high as 90 per cent.

Figures showing the percentage for the whole country are not easily obtainable, as they are not forwarded from the *ken* to the Home Department. I can judge only by the following figures (election of February-March, 1890) kindly furnished by governors and others and coming from representative parts of the Empire:

	Electors.	Votes cast.	Per cent.
Tokio (*fu*).....	12,281	4,845	40
Kioto (*fu*).....	28,276	9,391	33
Awomori (*ken*)....	18,556	13,394	72
Niigata (*ken*).....	48,932	30,122	61
Chiba (*gun*).....	2,410	1,522	63

There is a marked contrast here between the proportion in the metropolitan cities (*fu*) and that in the provincial regions. The percentage in the latter is on the one hand much better than that in Massachusetts in "off" years (52 per cent. in the period of 1871–'89), but not as satisfactory as that of New Jersey, Michigan, Wisconsin, and some other States (ranging, I believe, from 75 to 90 per cent. in the period 1876–'88). The *fu* seem to be distinctly behindhand in the interest shown by their citizens. Individual wards (*ku*) make an even more deplorable showing. In four wards in Tokio the percentages were respectively 10, 13, 16, and 17. Indeed, it was only by the aid of the suburban (rural) districts (one of which cast a vote of 75 per cent.) that the average was brought higher than 25 per cent. In Kioto, matters were little better: three wards returned percentages of 16, 19, and 19, respectively. The same lack of interest may be gathered from what one observes in mingling with people. For example, when inquiring the date of the Tokio election, I found at least four intelligent and highly educated gentlemen—men, too, who take a deep interest in the national progress—who could not tell me. Another, when I referred to the election in conversation, did not know it had occurred. "The Assembly?" one said; "oh, nobody pays much attention to that." I cannot venture to indicate with certainty the influences that produce this state of things; the fact is there plainly enough. Evidently Japan, like our own country, finds that in large cities the problem of local government develops special phases.

The proportion between electorate and population depends on the pecuniary voting qualification, already explained in your columns by an able correspondent. The notable fact is the repeated fluctuations in the size of the electorate. The figures for the Empire are as follows: 1880, 1,513,308; 1885, 1,637,137; 1887, 1,486,107; 1889, 1,602,249. Of course the causes of this are economic rather than political, and cannot be gone into at length in this place. Apparently the *fu* have on the whole been the losers. Thus:

	1880.	1885.	1887.	1889.
Tokio..	12,100	12,000	12,200	12,300
Kioto..	31,100	28,900	28,400	28,300
Osaka..	48,000	63,200	36,900	39,800

Probably the resumption of specie payment in 1886, the imposition of special taxes, and migration have contributed to the result. I am told, moreover, that in many districts financial distress, arising from various causes, has tended to make the rich richer and the poor poorer, thus thinning the electorate.

The three ranks are represented in the electorate as follows: *kwazoku* (nobles), 298; *shizoku* (corresponding to the old *samurai*), 60,337; *heimin* (commoners), 1,541,614. As to their relative influence in local politics, some inferences may be drawn from the statistics of membership of the assemblies. This is divided as follows: *kwazoku*, 1; *shizoku*, 508; *heimin*, 1,617. But the different sections of the country differ widely, and must be noticed separately. In the metropolitan cities the upper-class contingent is 17 per cent. of that of the commoners; in such old homes of clan feeling as Kagoshima (Satsuma) and the neighboring region, 678 per cent.; in the country districts elsewhere 13 per cent. The whole electorate in these different sections is divided about as follows: metropolitan cities, upper classes, 2.3 per cent.; Kagoshima, etc., 21 per cent.; other districts, 1 per cent. Making the necessary comparisons, then, we see that in the first section the upper classes, when it comes to the choice of members for the assemblies, wield an influence greater than that to which their mere numbers entitle them by 7.4 times in the first instance, by 34.2 times in the second, and by 13 times in the third. This indicates that, by reason of various historical influences, we cannot expect to find uniform progress throughout the country. It is, too, an instance of what may be frequently noticed in dealing with Japanese institutions, that, notwithstanding the comparatively small area of the country, there exist, as in our own country, in different sections widely different conditions, that in different regions may be found different solutions of the same problem, and that general truths must be laid down with hesitation.

The local political parties furnish another instance of this. In some districts parties exist, in others not. They separate usually on some question of local expediency. Not unlike the Athenian parties of the Mountain, the Shore, and the Plain, the lowlanders are frequently found fighting against taxation for mountain roads, and the mountaineers against the burden of dike and irrigation expenses. In Gumma *ken*, if not elsewhere also, the abolition of licensed prostitution has created two political camps. In Chiba *ken* for a long time the citizens have been divided over a certain Government-fathered bank, whose affairs were not satisfactorily managed. In Yokohama the merchants and the land-owners have been at odds, the disposition of some public property being at the root of the dissension. As to nomenclature, however, they have in many cases developed the custom, which so harms our own politics, of fighting local battles under national standards. Partly because the leading national parties have a widespread local organization, partly because prominent partisans become identified with opposing sides in local controversies, partly for other reasons, one finds the *Kaishinto* (Progressists) and the *Jiyuto* (Radicals), for example, contending in Chiba or Yokohama over questions that have not the remotest connection with their national platforms.

Party feeling often runs high, though here, too, it is impossible to make general statements about particular provinces, or even counties, much less about the Empire at large. In the town of Chiba, for example, I saw a very quiet and orderly election, while a small town only sixteen miles away has been notorious as one of the most turbulent places in the country. In the past few months the papers have reported at least half-a-dozen instances of violence. In Niigata *ken*, a few years ago, a too outspoken editor was decoyed from his sanctum and ducked in a muddy ditch. In Kagoshima a political murder occurred in March last. The country is troubled in various parts with young hare-brained *soshi*—a cross between hoodlum, anarchist, and reformer. Their creed is political liberty, but their methods are detestable and their character misguided.

As for the assemblies themselves, almost everything good can be said of them. To begin with, there is, according to universal testimony, none of our cheap jobbery and noisome corruption. Whatever exists is as yet sporadic. Tokio has furnished the only scandal I have heard of, an alleged bribery of members by proprietors in the Yoshiwara to obtain a diminution of the licensed prostitution tax. The members as a rule are of respectable, even of high standing, particularly in the country districts. From an examination of a small book giving the name, age, etc., of every member of the provincial assemblies, I find the average age to be as follows, with no special differences to be noted in different localities: 25 to 30 years 9 per cent., 30 to 35 30 per cent., 35 to 50 46 per cent., 50 to 70 15 per cent. In a country where young men, even youths, are so important an element among the educated classes, and are found so much at the front, this is certainly a very conservative showing. The occupations of the members are as follows (though these returns are not complete): Farmers 1,227, merchants 309, lawyers 64, physicians 59, bankers and brokers 17, printers and booksellers 3, liquor-brewers and dealers 10, pawnbrokers 11, journalists 10, teachers 16, corporation officers 5, artisans 2, local officials 16, miscellaneous 59, no business 192. The small number of journalists and the large number of those described as having "no business" are the peculiar features.

In the general conduct of the assemblies, entire decorum is the rule. Here and there one hears of a turbulent session or factional quarrels. In Niigata *ken* on one occasion a member of the Opposition was unceremoniously ejected by the angry majority. In another *ken* a member, who had fallen out with the presiding officer, took a somewhat erratic method of showing his disrespect by entering the Assembly wearing a mask. A spirited discussion ensued, which ended by the voluntary removal of the mask by its wearer and the restoration of harmony. *Hara-kiri* has long been abolished, but one notices now and then that, on the occasion of a supposed insult, or at a moment of uncontrollable indignation, the offended member will leave the Chamber, or even resign his seat out and out.

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In the majority of cases the relations between Governor and Assembly are harmonious. The popular Governors seem to be more numerous than the unpopular ones. The personality of the official, the temperament of the community, the difficulty of the special problems of the district, all enter into the question. There seems to have been but one genuine failure, Gov. Mishima of Fukushima *ken*, in 1883. It may be noted that the first public criminal trial in the country was that of some young men who were goaded by his conduct into a defensive league and were charged with conspiracy. Two years ago the Governor of Awomori *ken* (apparently a man not easy to get along with), in a report not intended for the public, referred to his constituents as "doltish." The word got abroad, the provincials stormed, the local officials resigned in a body, and the Governor's recall was demanded. His place is now filled by another.

Outside of the metropolitan cities, the assemblies seem to be really representative—to be, in truth, the mouthpieces of the people. They lead as well as express the public opinion of the community. Considered, too, merely as a measure for keeping the people contented, they are a success. Officials tell me that under the present system taxes are collected of a kind and amount that would otherwise be out of the question. That they are not always representative, however, in the sense of standing for all classes of opinion, is probably true. In some places, one is told, the educated and intelligent do not take part in politics. In some the mere politicians, not the sober citizens, preponderate. There is, however, as yet no antagonism between rich and poor or capital and labor. Great differences in wealth, where they exist, are not politically of consequence.

One characteristic, not easy to set forth briefly, stands out in contrast with the old attitude of thought. The difference between the law and government of former days and of to-day is the difference between precept and legislation. The people have emerged from a communal into a political system. Everything with them now is decision, law, statute—not mere custom or the unfettered discretion of an official. Apparently they are developing that habit of attention to exact expression, of drawing distinctions, of insisting on strict interpretations, which in modern times is characteristic of the Anglo-Saxon race. Take this incident for example. A few years ago, the Governor of an interior province obtained a two-weeks' furlough and was replaced by a deputy. Fretting over affairs, however, he returned unexpectedly in a few days, entered the Assembly, where his deputy presided, and took an outer seat. It chanced that the Assembly was taking the occasion of his absence to criticise his conduct, and that, too, without gloves. Angered at last by a specially severe hit (for the debaters continued, unawed by his presence), he jumped up and ordered the speaker to be silent. Nothing daunted, the member craftily inquired: "Do you speak as Governor or as an individual?" "As your Governor, sir, of course," indiscreetly replied the furloughed official. The debate over, the member made complaint to the Home Department, and the upshot was that the Governor was fined 100 yen for assuming to exercise the official prerogative while off duty. Now, the taking of such a distinction may appear to us natural enough, and hardly worth the mention. But here such incidents are much more than trivial. That such lines of reasoning have occurred, and have been accepted, is significant. That they should ever become general would denote a change in modes of thought which would be no less radical than subtle.

In the general management of business, conscientiousness and intelligence usually characterize the assemblies. A journal of the last session of one of these bodies lies before me, and, so far as can be judged from extracts, the debates are sensible and to the point, with perhaps a tendency to go a great deal into trivialities. The best opinion seems to be that the special need, if any, is greater experience and wisdom. Two extremes—a younger generation, visionary and unpractical, and an older one, conservative and behind the times—too often find a representation. In an interview with several Governors, which Count Yamagata, the Prime Minister, courteously procured for me, they said: "On the whole, we are satisfied. The assemblies suit the times. Give us ten years, when the old generation has gone and the new one has grown up. Then we will show you something better."

JOHN H. WIGMORE.

A DUTCH WATERING-PLACE.

SCHEVENINGEN, June, 1890.

Do not falter at the above apparently formidable name. You have only to make a skip between *sh* and *k*, and there you are! The place itself is so beloved of Hollanders that the harsh name trips lightly over the tongue of one to the marshes born, and there is an air of easy superiority about the speaker that quite puts down all claims of rival watering-places. But Scheveningen has truly a charm possessed by no other seaside resort. The North Sea itself has a character—gray and sullen in calm, terrible in rage—that at once fascinates and repels; and it is easy to account for the reverential fear with which it inspired the adventurous mariners who first trusted themselves to its dark waters.

The fishing village—for Scheveningen is a fishing-port as well as pleasure-resort—lies below the level of the sea, but is defended from it by a bulwark of dunes. It has told many a tale of devastation in the past, but, thanks to the skill and untiring energy of the indomitable Holland people, it has now little to fear from any onslaught its old enemy may make. It is exceptional in that it possesses the virtue of cleanliness along with the charm of picturesqueness, a combination one does not always find in a fishing village. As we walk through its narrow lanes it seems to be always washing or scrubbing day, for on every available projecting point are hung flannel garments, red and blue, bright-colored aprons and gorgeous kerchiefs that, together with the pots of blooming roses and geraniums in the windows, make fine bits of color in which to revel. But one must frequently dodge the deluge of water that might fall upon the too oblivious color-dreamer, for, when possessed by the scrubbing mania, Holland maids, though otherwise kindly natured, are no respecters of persons.

Up from the village towards the sea, we climb by a gentle ascent to the fashionable *Nordseebad*, situated on the dunes and commanding a fine expanse of sea and sky. Along the slope are gayly painted villas bearing Dutch and French feminine names, or inscriptions indicative of the joys to be found therein—such as "Rest and Pleasure," "Friendship and Society," "Sea Rest," etc. Extending along the high embankment, which is built of the most solid masonry, fronting the sea, are the "Kurhaus" and other bathing establishments, gay with flags and streamers of bright orange, filled with the wealth and fashion of northern Europe, and enlivened by a constantly moving stream of people from all parts of the world. The sea upon which these pleasure-seekers look is never a smiling one, and one can fancy the contempt it must feel for the chattering crowd that ranges along its strand. Sullen it lies in the bright sunshine, and when the late twilight steals over its wastes, it covers itself with a mantle of pale gray mist and moans sadly, or, rising in rage, beats against the solid wall of rock built by human hands to withstand its power. Meanwhile, bright lights flash out from the pavilions and gay music mocks the sea's moaning; only when weird notes sound forth inspired by German myth or some Viking-haunted soul do man and nature seem to interpret each other.

But the days, long though they are in midsummer, seem all too short for the delights of this Holland seaside. We wander down to the end of the strand nearest the village, where lie high and dry the broad, ruddy-brown fishing vessels waiting for the tide that shall launch them off to their labors along the north coast of Scotland. Picturesque groups of women, busily knitting, sit on the sand, under the lee of some old weather-beaten boat, waiting for the husbands and lovers who are to embark for a long voyage. As the fishermen arrive the boat is rolled into the water, the men jump aboard, the women and old men, who are to remain on shore, wade out along the shelving beach and slowly and laboriously push off the clumsy concern, while a few belated sailors, who appear with their belongings tied up in gorgeous handkerchiefs, are carried out safe and dry astride the shoulders of some stalwart old salt. As the brown sails catch the breeze and the boat plunges through the surf, good-bys are shouted, while, loath to leave, the women stand and wave their hands until there is nothing to be seen but a dark speck on the far horizon. Then, with grave faces and slow footsteps, the women go homeward, and the old men repair to a seat overlooking the sea and sit silently in a row while the smoke of their meditations rises heavenward. Later on we see the women at their net-mending, and a striking picture they make in their scarlet lined blue cloaks, sitting on the vividly green grass busily at work on the brown nets spread over its surface.

Down at the other end of the strand there is a different world of life and movement. Over the broad stone steps that lead to the beach a smiling throng of well-dressed people is constantly passing. On either side the walk are booths flying gay streamers and displaying heaps of red cherries, purple plums, and yellow apricots, with piles of the famous Dutch gingerbread, sweetened with honey and ornamented with generous slices of citron. From shining brass reservoirs there flows at call a stream of delicious milk, the product of the sleek cows we saw feeding in the green meadows on our way to The Hague; while the sign "Diverse Bieren" proclaims that one need not go thirsty. On the smooth broad beach, in cosey neighborly groups, the beach chairs invitingly stand, *windstoelen*, as they are aptly called; made of stout willow and having a closely woven back, with top shaped like a chaise, they effectually keep out wind and sun. For the price of about four cents of our money one can rent one of these chairs for half a day; receiving a yellow check, bearing a figure of a stork and the word "windstoel," together with the price and the length of time for which the check is good. Here sit dowagers and maidens reading, sewing, gossiping; while happy children build dykes of sand against the incoming tide, and gayly chatter to

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one another in Dutch, French, and German, often asking rapid questions in French and being quickly answered in Dutch, with that childish facility for languages that grown people can only envy. Gallants in immaculate suits of white flannel hover about the chairs of the young maidens, and pretty boys in sailor costume go in and out among the people with waiters full of clinking glasses, the very sound of which wakens thirst. Now and then an officer in brave uniform, from the station near by, gallops along the hard sand, and the donkey-drivers with persuasive cries urge on the plump little animals with their joyous burdens.

And so the day melts insensibly away, and, while it is yet light outside, the "Kursaal" is brilliant with many gas jets, and music-lovers from The Hague come by carriage and tram-car and fill the large hall, while the symphony orchestra of eighty musicians interprets the great composers with faithfulness and delicacy. In the middle of the hall, immediately in front of the orchestra, there are comfortable, high-backed chairs for those who really come to hear the music; and up to five o'clock these may be reserved, in which case the word "Besproken" in large letters is pasted on the backs. All around the hall are small tables and chairs for those who wish to season their music with a social cup of tea or coffee, or perhaps something stronger—Schiedam not being far away. In spite of the many people, and the social element, there is little confusion, and the waiters are requested not to move about while certain pieces are being played. The love of music, as of color, seems to be spontaneous with the Holland people, and while there is little noisy demonstration, there is, apparently, fine appreciation. Love of country was evidenced by the whole audience rising to its feet when the national hymn was being played, and standing until the last note had sounded.

During the long twilight, the day's labors being over, the women from the village stroll in groups along the esplanade, grave and dignified in bearing, little heeding the gay world about them. They are uniformly dressed in black stockings, white wooden shoes, short skirt, of red or blue serge, puffed out—so we have been told—with twenty petticoats. A shawl of bright color is pinned across the breast, and a close, white cap covers the head, to which on Sundays and holidays are added, on each side above the temple, the heirlooms of gold spirals and pendant ornaments so dear to the heart of the Netherland peasant woman. With the exception of the gold ornaments, the children are exact copies in miniature of their elders, making in the distance a droll appearance; but on a nearer approach we see sweet, serious little faces with honest blue eyes; and if the stuff of the dress were of richer quality, we could fancy that the little figures had just stepped out of their frames from the galleries of The Hague or Amsterdam. On every occasion both women and little girls are engaged in knitting long black stockings. As they sit along the sea wall, or stroll along the strand, or walk by the side of the little dog-carts delivering milk, fruit, or vegetables, the stockings grow rapidly under their busy fingers, and we wondered where could be the market that required such countless pairs of hose. But we wondered no longer when we saw the favorite pastime of the children. Using their wooden shoes as toboggans, these apparently sober little creatures slide recklessly down the slippery stone embankment and in their stocking feet scramble back again with shouts and laughter; and as the woollen material is unhappily not so well suited as the wooden to withstand the wear and tear of contact with the stone, an explanation was soon found for the eternal knitting.

As we leave the gray sea, the lovely dunes, with their purple shadows, the sober fishing-folk and the crowd, to go on to The Hague, we note how the sand has drifted over the track since the last train has passed over it, so that laborers are engaged in shovelling it away. Along the track for many yards the sides of the great dunes have with infinite labor been paved with cut stone, and where it was impossible to do this a coarse grass is sown to keep the sand within bounds; and yet the fine white particles come swiftly and silently drifting in, blown by the fierce winds that sweep over these lowlands until, accumulating, they play an important part in the struggles of the people to maintain existence. If it be true that we love most what costs us pain and labor, then we need not wonder at the ardent love of the Hollanders for their country. The spongy soil, needing constant draining; the daily and hourly watching that the insidious sea does not undermine those great monuments of skill and industry, the dykes; the still more patient labor required to combat the seemingly inoffensive particles of sand—all serve to endear this little strip of watery land to its saviours.

Correspondence.

THE POINT OF ATTACK.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: This week the text is furnished by Mr. David A. Wells. A foreigner reading his letter in your last issue, clear, crisp, and convincing, must ask himself whether the people of the United States have lost their senses, or really enjoy being put through the process which Mr. Wells describes. He could not see that in this country, which he supposes to be a pure democracy, the authority to which Mr. Wells's letter is addressed—that is, the mass of the people—has no more voice in the matter than the mass of the British people had as to the Corn Laws before the first Parliamentary Reform Bill, and that this country is governed by a combination of private interests to which Mr. Wells's letter is merely a subject of amusement.

I remember hearing Mr. Bryce say that he had not dwelt very much in his book upon the lobby because he was not sure that he quite understood it. And our foreigner may well be puzzled by this mysterious and self-constituted organization, which surrounds not only Congress, but every State Legislature and every City Hall in the United States. Yet the origin and structure of the lobby is the simplest thing in the world. Given a legislative body of some 300 members, for the most part strangers to each other, all precisely equal, all representing localities, with nobody to represent the general interest, and no official guide or leader of any kind—in short, a regiment of privates without any officers. When this body assembles, there is absolutely no business prepared for it, but it may take up any earthly subject which any of the 300 members may choose to propose, and may treat that subject in any way it pleases. The problem is how to get such a body to do any work. The natural way would be to let the Chief Executive—President, Governor, or Mayor—elected by and responsible to the whole people, prepare the business, submit it to the Legislature, and guide the latter in its deliberations. This, however, is strictly prohibited, the executive being limited to that which any other citizen can do just as well—written communications—to which the Legislature pays no attention whatever.

How, then, does the body get to work? It first splits itself up into a large number of committees, appointed by an officer elected for that purpose, a process by which, if the whole body is not at the outset converted into a hot-bed of corruption, it is because the popular control still keeps the men a great deal better than the system. The committees are no better off than the main body. There is no initial force whatever. What subject they may take up and how they may deal with it depends first upon chance, and then upon outside manipulation. This manipulation is equally open to any one of the sixty millions of inhabitants of the United States, and the exercise of it, of course, falls to those who have the largest capital and the most determined will; while, to make the conditions as unfavorable as possible, all the influence and all the negotiations are carried on in secret; every question is settled by dead weight of party majority and minority, with a complete gag upon anything like public debate, with no personal responsibility anywhere, and no protector of the public interest.

This is the origin of the lobby, which grows and flourishes with increasing vigor, as I have said, around Congress, every State Legislature, and every City Hall in the United States. It goes so far as really to create both Legislature and Executive, the people having no choice except between the candidates offered them by the two great parties, differing only as to which lobby manages them, if, indeed, the same lobby does not manage both. Under the "Trust" principle this is likely to take place before long if it has not already.

We have just had in Massachusetts a splendid specimen of this lobby product. It has culminated in that report which the State offers to an admiring world, and in which the Investigating Committee cordially agrees with the officials of the West End Railroad Company, that nothing can be done at the State House except through the lobby, and, therefore, that nobody can be blamed for making use of it, though such use should always be restrained by considerations of propriety.

The political future of this country depends upon whether it is to resign itself hopelessly and helplessly to this rule of the lobby. The only hope of escape from it lies in providing a substitute in a strong and responsible executive power instead of the caricature now called by that name, and in giving to it the conduct of business in the Legislature with such order and system as to enable the people to understand and control what is going on. At any rate, till this problem of the lobby is grappled with, Mr. Wells and Mr. Atkinson may continue to furnish, as they have done for the last twenty-five years, the most exhaustive demonstrations of economical problems with no more practical result than if, instead of printing them, they had stood on their front door-steps and talked to the north wind.

G. B.

Boston, July 5, 1890.

POLITICS IN COLORADO.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Editorial comment in your issue of June 26 contrasting the speech of Senator Wolcott of Colorado at the New England dinner in 1887 and that recently made by him on silver in the Senate, puts him too much in the guise of a natural partisan undergoing for the first time an inchoate shock of reason. He said: "We find all the excitement we need in the two great parties, and we rather look upon the talk of anybody in either party being better

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than his party as a sort of cant. The hypercritical faculty has not reached us yet, and we leave to you of the East the exclusive occupancy of the raised dais upon which it seems necessary for the independent voter to stand while he is counted." Drollery lurks in this masked confidence.

At that time the Senator was the most brilliant "kicker" in Colorado. The defeat of the Republican nominee for Governor in 1882 is acknowledged to have come from the Wolcott kick. It was fortunate; but the motive has been ungraciously ascribed, by friends as well as foes, to pique rather than to principle. It is, likewise, not denied that he voted for Cleveland on his first candidacy. Those trusting newspapers can learn from the Denver *Republican* that he cares not a fig for his party, and never did.

The question of punishing or rewarding a kicker turns on the significance of his pedal endeavors. The Republican party of Colorado rewards the Senator because he has kicked it successfully. The "hypercritical faculty" has never bothered him. That the Republican campaign at Denver in the fall of 1888 was one of unmatched sin is a part of the unwritten history of that city.

From that speech, one would suppose that the deep-chested, firm-striding, brawn-loving, lynx-sighted, hard-smiting, bold-thinking, and hope-wagering Man of the West, before all others, is abundantly content to scent his way blindly along the beaten path of party superstition. A protest should be entered against that inferable slur upon the Coloradans of rococo party servility—a slur seemingly convenient, however, for securing a glowing effect upon that occasion before the festive New Englanders. The "scratchers" in Colorado began to be feared long before that time. There is nothing in the geography of the "vasty West," or in the influence of the setting sun, to prevent an elector from siding with the struggle for good government rather than crawling in the party gutter and voting for the "yellow dog." The last Legislature in this State was unspeakably bad, and the present condition of the Executive Department is heartrending. So, just now, notwithstanding the boasted area of the State and its comparatively scant population, it would be hard to find another containing more Mugwumps per acre.

O. F. A. Greene.

Boulder, Colorado, July 2, 1890.

THE WEST END RAILWAY INVESTIGATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The article in your last issue entitled "A Study in Legislative Morals," doubtless written before the report of the Investigating Committee appointed by the Massachusetts House of Representatives reached you, contains some errors which I trust that you will permit me to correct. Perhaps the fact that I served as a member of that Committee, and that I voted against the bill on account of the methods disclosed, may be a sufficient guarantee that I am neither ignorant of the evidence presented nor disposed to distort it in favor of the railway company. The facts as found are sufficient to furnish you with a text without needing the exaggerations or perversions of the truth into which you have unwittingly been led.

It has not "been shown that, in getting their project to the point at which Mr. Williams stopped it, the company spent $113,516." The Investigating Committee, upon which were four lawyers, unanimously found from the evidence that the company had spent in round numbers $21,000, including the $7,500 paid to the newspapers, and that the amount still to be paid to legislative counsel and lobbyists, so far as it could be fixed by the testimony, was $10,500. A further considerable sum, not based upon agreements, and therefore impossible to determine, was also to be paid for the same purpose, but, judging by the scale of prices disclosed, the total amount, including a liberal estimate under this head, must fall short of $50,000. This is high enough without swelling it to $113,000.

Nor did the evidence show that "eight eminent legal lights of the Boston bar," including two ex-Governors, were retained as counsel in connection with the legislation petitioned for. While a number of lawyers of no special eminence as members of the bar were retained for purposes which did not seem to be of an altogether legal character, there were only two, outside of the regular counsel of the company, who could possibly come within your designation.

There is no foundation for your statement that "great efforts were made to 'fix' the Railway Committees of the two houses in the interest of the company," and very little for the statement that the company "put out money freely" to counteract the efforts of a rival applicant for a charter during the campaign. There are other minor inaccuracies that might be pointed out, but I will not trespass further upon your space.

Altogether I regret that you did not have fuller information upon which to base your article. We may be bad enough in Massachusetts, but you have painted us blacker than we are, so far as this matter is concerned.

I am, etc., Josiah Quincy.

Quincy, July 7, 1890.

TROS TYRIUSVE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the classic *Spectator* there is an account, by Addison, I think, of the writer's meeting a party of young men on horseback, one of whom impresses him as insignificant and effeminate-looking. The group shifts, and he sees that the supposed cavalier has a side-saddle and skirt—is, in fact, a lady; whereupon she strikes him as bold and masculine in her bearing. Some such modification may occur in your view of 'Les Américains chez eux,' noticed in your number of June 19, when the mistake is corrected by which this book has been announced in this country as the work of the Marquis San Carlos de Pedroso, and it is known to be by the Marchioness, who was in her girlhood a beauty of Parisian society not long before the fall of the late Empire.

Yours respectfully, S. B. W.

June 30, 1890.

[Not at all. Our opinion remains quite unchanged.—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have in press 'The Trees of Northeastern America,' by Chas. S. Newhall, with illustrations made from tracings of the leaves of the various trees; 'Among Moths and Butterflies,' by Julia P. Ballard; 'Dust and its Dangers,' by T. M. Prudden, M.D.; 'The Jews under the Romans,' by the Rev. W. Douglas Morrison; 'Gustavus Adolphus, and the Struggle of Protestantism for Existence,' by C. R. L. Fletcher; and the late G. P. Putnam's 'Tabular Views of Universal History,' continued to date by Lynds E. Jones.

Scribner & Welford will shortly publish 'Sanity and Insanity,' by Charles Mercier, and 'Hypnotism,' by Dr. Albert Moll.

'Language and Linguistic Methods in Schools,' by Dr. S. S. Laurie; Robert Drury's 'Journal in Madagascar'; and 'Glimpses of Old English Homes,' illustrated by the late Miss Elizabeth Balch, are on the list of Macmillan & Co.'s forthcoming publications.

Benj. R. Tucker, Boston, publishes this week a translation of the late Félix Pyat's 'Rag-Picker of Paris.'

MM. Hachette & Cie. announce, in their list of new publications of June 15, the first volume of M. Ferdinand Brunetière's "L'Évolution des Genres dans l'histoire de la Littérature." This volume is introductory, and bears the title: 'L'Évolution de la Critique depuis la Renaissance jusqu'à nos jours.' It will be rather a general view than a complete history of criticism. M. Brunetière says, in an extract from his preface which is given with the above announcement, that he shall strive to bring out his entire work in the course of the next eighteen months or two years. The second volume, which will take up the general question of the evolution of literature, and especially the evolution of *genres*, will appear next December. The third, 'Exemples et Applications,' will doubtless be ready by the month of May, 1891, and the fourth and last, 'Conclusions et Méthodes,' will come out in the winter of 1891–1892. MM. Hachette also announce that the seventh volume of their new edition of St.-Simon's 'Mémoires' has been put on sale.

The reprint of German literary monuments of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries ('Deutsche Litteraturdenkmale'), supervised by Bernhard Seuffert, which already extends to thirty-two volumes, has passed from the publishers Henninger of Heilbronn to the house of G. J. Göschen in Stuttgart. The series will be continued with the complete poetic works of Johann Peter Uz (1720–1796).

"Speculative and Theological Essays" make the eighth volume of Prof. Masson's 'Collected Writings of Thomas De Quincey' (Macmillan). The frontispiece, a view of the nebula of Orion, is supplied to aid as it may the comprehension of De Quincey's essay on the "System of the Heavens as revealed by Lord Rosse's Telescopes." Prof. Masson remarks, with regard to the essay on "Plato's Republic," that De Quincey by exception ranged himself among the anti-Platonists or Aristotelians, for "if any man ever had the Platonic thumb, or whatever else is the true physiological indication, it was De Quincey." "Flat, spatulous, prosaic thumbs," it appears, predestine their owners to be followers of the Stagirite.

The scheme of presenting history in a compilation from contemporary writers gives us, for Scotland, 'The Days of James IV. (1488–1513),' edited by G. Gregory Smith (London: David Nutt). The period is not completely reflected in the extracts, for want of the proper narrative material; but the handy little volume is readable like its predecessors.

Book-buyers whose purchases have reference to the author's welfare may promote this and their own pleasure by buying 'A Japanese Boy, by Himself,' newly reissued by Henry Holt & Co. Mr. Shiukichi Shigemi is a student at New Haven, and his little book is a means to the prosecution of his studies. We have already spoken of it in praise, but we again commend it as an interesting example of the mastery of English by an Asiatic, and a

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charming and naïf account of child and family life in Japan, with such power of description, especially of nature, as to make one feel very near the springs of Japanese art.

Corpulence is a sufficiently common infirmity in this country to make welcome such an attempt at its rational relief as Mr. N. E. Davies, an English surgeon, presents in 'Foods for the Fat' (J. B. Lippincott Co.). The sugars and starches, not fat itself, are the great formers of fat, and practicable substitutes are the great desiderata. This little book is the first we have seen that systematically replaces sugar by saccharin as a sweetening principle. Saccharin is a coal-tar derivative, nearly three hundred times as sweet as its weight of cane sugar, having none of the fattening properties of the natural element and harmless as a diet. It should be very precious to the corpulent and the diabetic. The essay is a very sensible one, with copious diet tables and numerous cooking recipes for the infirm; but to American eyes the elaborate provision it makes for alcohol in some form looks odd. This is done not because wine is antagonistic to fat, but because it is assumed to be necessary for comfort. A luxury is one thing, but such careful arrangement for a doubtful luxury for those who are physically unbalanced is another. The incidental allusion to the ordinary diet in Guy's Hospital, where "there is also a daily allowance of one-half pint of porter and two and one-half ounces of milk," more than three times as much porter as milk for the average patient, gives a clue not only to the drinking habits, but to the prevalence of corpulence, among middle-aged English. This is an American edition not edited except in name, for the editor appears to have regarded his duty done when he remarks that the seasons and the markets differ in the two countries. He complacently leaves on the list for the reader's selection, month after month, turbot, soles, plaice, skate, whitings, brill, cockles, barbels, crayfish, and what not, while our magnificent array of vegetables, covering the year, receives no word of commendation or warning.

Simultaneously with Harvard's Quinquennial Catalogue appears the 'General Catalogue of Dartmouth College,' less full, of course, than its elder sister's, less elegant in its typography, but in two respects more biographical. Not only is the date of a graduate's decease set down, but, close beside it, his age; and where his occupation is known, that too is briefly designated. There is even a difference in recording totals. Thus, of the class of 1848, the Harvard Catalogue reports *30+32=62, showing that 30 have died and 32 survive out of a total of 62. The Dartmouth Catalogue reports 53—*22, leaving the number of survivors to be computed by performing the subtraction. But whereas these two classes, selected at random, agree very nearly in total strength and in survivors, the class of 1888 at Harvard was 240 strong, at Dartmouth 63; and a graduating class of the former institution is larger than the four classes of the latter added together. The Dartmouth class of 1878, consisting of 74 members, seems to have been the largest on record; that of 1879 fell to 46, or below the figures for 1848, and fluctuations are still noticeable.

Mr. Horace E. Scudder has succeeded to the post of editor of the *Atlantic Monthly* upon the resignation of Mr. T. B. Aldrich, whose Pegasus is now unyoked.

The late Henry B. Dawson is commemorated, with portrait and text, in the July number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*. Further correction of Knapp's untrustworthy "Life of Lord Timothy Dexter" is made by Mr. Wm. C. Todd. Mr. R. H. Greene sums up for six of the earliest American colleges the interesting statistics that have appeared in the *Register* as to high public positions held by them. Mr. Waters's "Gleanings" among English wills and records relate mainly to the family of Brett; but in an appendix the ever-growing Washington discoveries are recorded with the aid of illustrations.

Mr. J. R. Tutin of Hull, England, has just made the discovery of a variant and earlier form of Wordsworth's "Ode to Duty." It appears in a cancelled sheet of printed matter which Mr. Tutin found in a copy of the 1807 edition of Wordsworth's 'Poems,' in two volumes. The *Academy* of June 21 prints the first stanza of this earlier form, which, altered and improved, corresponds to the second stanza of the ode as we now know it. It is as follows:

"There are who tread a blameless way
In purity and love and truth,
Though resting on no better stay
Than on the genial sense of youth:
Glad hearts! without reproach or blot;
Who do the right and know it not;
May joy be theirs while life shall last,
And may a genial sense remain when youth is past."

Oud Holland, that handsome Dutch quarterly magazine devoted to the history of the art, literature, and industry of the Netherlands (Amsterdam: Gebroeders Binger; New York: F. W. Christern), enters upon its ninth volume during the present year. Among the articles promised is one on Kiliaen van Rensselaer and his American colony, by Mr. N. de Roever.

The office of *Artistic Japan* has been removed to No. 304 Fifth Avenue. The monthly issues of this unique publication have now been brought as far along as April, and the variety and quality of the plates are well sustained; in the matter of stuffs, particularly, the force of imitation need no further go. Since the new year came in, Mr. J. Brinkmann's discourse on "The Poetic Tradition in Japanese Art" has given way to "Animals in Japanese Art," by Ary Renan, and to an account, by Louis Gonse, of the master decorative draughtsman Korin, or Hotshiku (1661–1716), whose designs freely adorn the text. The colored covers of *Artistic Japan* are of a different pattern each month.

A discovery has been made on the site of the ancient Mendes which may be of more than mere Egyptological importance. A building has been partly unearthed, consisting of several rooms containing what was apparently a library of the Ptolemaic period. More than five hundred rolls of papyrus have been found in a carbonized condition, the building having evidently been burned. These papyri are written in Greek, and, so far as can be seen, are of the Ptolemaic or Roman age, and not Byzantine. There is a chance, therefore, of finding some works of value. But it will be necessary to spend several hundred pounds in excavation, and the Museum is just now without funds. Then comes the slow work of unrolling and deciphering, for which it will be necessary to employ one of the experts at Naples. Here is an opportunity for an exploring society to turn its funds to the best possible scientific account.

From Dietrich Reimer, Berlin, we receive the first four out of fifteen sheets of a map, by Dr. Heinrich Kiepert, of Western Asia Minor on a scale of 1: 250,000. In this work the veteran cartographer, now just completing his seventy-second year, returns in part to an early task. Half a century ago, as he relates, Moltke and other Prussian officers, on coming home from the Turkish service, intrusted to him the geographic data amassed in their official military journeys in Asia Minor, to which he added his own recent observations in the western portion of the peninsula, and, availing himself of all extant literary sources, produced in 1844 a map of Asia Minor on a much smaller scale than the present fragment (1:1,000,000). This map, repeatedly copied, and which has been of the greatest utility to travellers, has hitherto not been superseded, though the Russians have for political purposes within twenty years constructed a larger one (1:840,000). Dr. Kiepert has now used a great deal of unpublished material, and has received much aid from the labors of archæologists like Profs. Ramsay and Sterrett (who repay their debt to him), especially in the identification of places; all which he acknowledges most conscientiously and in detail. It is needless to add more to this account of Kiepert's always authoritative work. He has supplied the Turkish and the classical names, using for the former the transliteration recommended by a committee of the Paris Geographical Society. French and English equivalents are often annexed.

After twenty-five years of active service, the executioner of Prague, Seyfried, has just been celebrating his jubilee. A serenade was to make part of the programme, and it was a matter of some delicacy what song to select. A friend and admirer suggested that the "Lob der Polin" in the "Beggar Student" was just made for this occasion. It was adopted, and from a choir of twenty manly voices rang forth the words:

"Ich knüpfte manche zarte Bande."

A Society of Contemporanecus History has been founded in Paris under the auspices of the Bibliographical Society, and whereas the Société de l'Histoire de France drew the line of *ne plus ultra* at 1789, the new Society takes its departure from that date. A live society of this kind in the United States might be of the greatest utility. On payment of twenty francs one may become a member of the Société d'Histoire Contemporaine, whose headquarters in Paris are at 5 Rue St.-Simon.

The thirty-ninth meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science will be held at Indianapolis on August 19–27. The local Secretary is Mr. Alfred F. Potts.

—A remarkable collection of American colonial laws, and early Americana illustrative of these rare books, made by the late Charlemagne Tower, has been presented by his widow to the Historical Society of Pennsylvania. His son has added greatly to the value of the gift by his admirable catalogue, beautifully printed at the Lippincott Press, and presented to the Historical Society for the use of its own members and of those of kindred bodies, and of other persons interested. The elder Mr. Tower was greatly assisted in forming his collection by the indefatigable labor of one of our best American bibliographers, Mr. Charles M. Hildeburn, Librarian of the Philadelphia Athenæum, and the son very wisely secured Mr. Hildeburn's help in making the catalogue, in which, characteristically, his name nowhere appears. It is an exhaustive description of each of the 942 numbers that comprise the early laws, and the 87 numbers that include the most important illustrative works. The catalogue is prefaced by a capital sketch of Mr. Tower's life, an eminently characteristic instance of American enterprise. Born in New York of good old New England stock, graduating at Harvard in 1830, in the class of which Charles Sumner was the chief pride, Mr. Tower practised law in New York, then went to Pennsylvania, where he married and settled, and gained the leadership as an authority on land and mining laws and titles. Retiring from active practice in 1875, he went to Philadelphia and at once became engaged in

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the Northern Pacific Railroad and other great enterprises. Almost alone he developed the mineral resources of Minnesota, and finally transferred to a great and successful corporation the mines, roads, wharves, and other improvements which he had made. A few years of rest and tranquil enjoyment were granted him, and he died in July, 1889, in his eighty-first year, at his country-seat, near Waterville, New York, his birthplace. For forty years he had been gathering the collection now catalogued. It contains the first edition extant of the laws of almost each of the original colonies, supplemented by all the revisions down to 1800, and, the rarest of rare books, the original sessions laws. The set of Pennsylvania laws is unequalled, that of Massachusetts is the finest and most complete gathered together, and that of New York has the edition of 1789 in the copy specially bound for presentation to Washington, with his autograph and book-plate in each volume. The Americana are general histories, books on America printed in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, a fine series of the Eliot Indian Tracts, and other curious books relating to the Indians. All of these are bound in the best style, and are interesting as fine examples of the bookbinder's art, with some characteristic touches, for each colony has its distinctive color and each book its appropriate decoration. Altogether the Tower collection is a monument eminently worthy of the man.

— Few persons of New England origin are unable to trace their lineage through a half-dozen generations. Many can point to their first-comers within two or three decades of the *Mayflower*, and perhaps name the vessels in which they came. For this ability they owe a world of gratitude to James Savage and to the *Genealogical Register*, already approaching its fiftieth volume. But while well-nigh all the first-comers were from England, it is hard to say from what shire. Ten times more difficult is it to ascertain the cities, towns, hamlets, and especially the families from which early Americans emigrated. The last-century mistakes concerning the Washington pedigree, and the often-baffled endeavors to correct them, furnish one example among many of the labyrinths on which our family historians enter as soon as they cross the sea. In such mazes every clue which gives promise of sure guidance is worth consideration, especially if it is a new departure. Hence the following suggestion in a letter from Mark N. Bullen of Barnard Castle to an American friend is worth noting:

"The connection," he writes, "of American families with families in England will be best elucidated if your historical societies would combine and print our *Hearth Taxes* for circa 1660. You would thus have a most minute return by counties and villages of every inhabitant of England at that date who had a roof of any sort over his head. Our population was then not more than one-sixth of what it is now, and it was practically stationary [knowing few removes from shire to shire]; so in seventy-five per cent. of the cases I am certain an immediate clue would be given to the locality an American had emigrated from. Such a work would no doubt be heavy—the tax-roll for my own county, Cambridge, for 1664 covers one hundred and four skins of parchment; but I can speak positively as to its wonderful minuteness. It names, I am quite sure, every person who had so much as a hovel. This work should be done by us; but whenever an Englishman is curious about his family, he knows in what locality he is to look, and so goes to the Record Office and makes research for himself."

Such a publication is greatly to be desired as affording a base of operations abroad analogous to what James Savage and the *Genealogical Register* have provided for inquirers at home. If sister societies will associate in this publication, we are informed that the State Historical Society of Wisconsin will be prompt with its quota of pecuniary aid.

—The period covered by the fourth and fifth volumes of Sybel's 'Die Begründung des Deutschen Reiches,' although confined to a few years, comprises events of immense moment for the political development of Germany. Bismarck's diagnosis of the chronic malady which, he had declared, in his famous letter from St. Petersburg to the Minister von Schleinitz, must sooner or later be healed *ferro et igni*, had proved to be perfectly correct. This heroic and radical cure by bleedings and burnings now began in good earnest, much against the will of the rather obese and lethargic patient, but with excellent results. "Beneficia obtruduntur," the motto of Sybel's fourth volume, expresses exactly the relation of the surgeon to the sick man who, unconscious of the cankerous nature of his disease, loudly protests against the use of cauters and lancets, which are now the only means of restoring him to health. This bold method of procedure was thoroughly disapproved of by other influential councillors of the monarch, and met with strong opposition in the royal palace. The Crown Prince, Frederic William, feared lest a war with Austria should foment intestine disorders, and, by provoking foreign intervention, lead to a permanent dismemberment of Germany; and all the political principles, family affiliations and traditions, and personal relations of King William combined to render such a rupture extremely painful to him, especially as it seemed to involve the disagreeable necessity of a nearer approach to Napoleon and a possible alliance with France. The masterly diplomatic skill with which Bismarck avoided these dangerous complications appears especially in his negotiations with France and Italy, the description of which occupies a considerable part of the fourth volume. The fifth volume, which bears as its motto the words of Oliver Cromwell, "Pax quæritur bello," is devoted entirely to a history of the war of 1866 and the formation of the North German Confederation. Von Sybel excels in the clear and comprehensive survey of great military movements, and possesses the rare faculty of making plans of campaigns and battles intelligible and interesting to ordinary unprofessional readers. A masterpiece of this kind of narration is the description of the Bohemian campaign culminating in the battle of Königgrätz. According to Von Sybel, "the German Empire was founded in the autumn of 1866"; he therefore regards the task which he had undertaken as completed by the publication of the last of the two volumes now before us. Frederic William urged his father to assume the imperial title as early as 1867; but Bismarck opposed such a step as premature, and King William unhesitatingly rejected the proposal, declaring that he was content to be "the commander-in-chief of the Confederation and the first among his peers." Indeed, the proclamation of a North German Empire would have awakened no enthusiasm, and might have imperilled the ultimate achievement of national unity, whereas a North German Confederation under the hegemony of Prussia, and with the South German States bound by military treaties to recognize the supremacy of Prussia in time of war, furnished a firm and sufficiently elastic basis upon which to rear the permanent structure of a pan-German Empire. Von Sybel proposes to trace this natural and inevitable process of transition and development in three additional volumes, which will be published in the autumn of 1891, and will bring down the history of Germany to the conclusion of the Peace of Frankfort on the 10th of May, 1871.

—Since the effort to internationalize Egypt as distinguished from Anglicizing it, the claims of national right to places and positions go very far. Here is an instance: The present director of the Khedivial library, Dr. Vollers, is about to retire to accept a professorship at Tübingen. The pay is small, but there are several candidates for the place, the most important of them being Mr. Edward A. Van Dyck, an American. But the appointment of any one not a German will bring about a diplomatic storm, unless by any chance the German Government has *no* candidate. What is needed to make the library useful is a scholar already up to his work, and not a man sent out to make himself acquainted with colloquial Arabic. That principle might be well enough were it a German and not the Khedivial library. Dr. Vollers has probably justified his tenure of office by his dictionary of colloquial Egyptian Arabic now printing at Beirut. Mr. Van Dyck is the son of Dr. Van Dyck, the well-known Arabic scholar and missionary at Beirut. As he was born and has passed all his life in the East, he has a thorough knowledge both of colloquial and literary Arabic, to which he adds most of the European languages. Specimens of his serious studies are a careful monograph on the capitulations with the Ottoman Empire, a translation from the Italian of Gatteschi's 'Real Property, Mortgage, etc., according to Ottoman Law,' and translations from the French of 'The Right of Landed Property in Egypt,' and 'Public Instruction in Egypt,' both by Yakub Artin Pasha, and the latter recently reviewed by us. Such work ought to be encouraged, and the fact that Mr. Van Dyck has been in our State Department and our consular service and is now Professor in the Khedivial high school would, under ordinary circumstances, tell in his favor. But in Egypt!

—Another example. The Society for the Preservation of the Monuments of Ancient Egypt, of which the Earl of Wharncliffe is President and Mr. E. J. Poynter, R.A., Secretary, was founded about two years ago, not for the purpose of exploration and discovery, but for rescuing the monuments already discovered from further ruin and destruction, while there is still time. Any one who has travelled on the Nile will admit the urgent need of this society. The Egyptian Government does something, for it levies a tax of £1 a head on each Nile traveller for this purpose, and the receipts this last season must have amounted to fully £7,500. But this is insufficient. Moderate estimates of what is urgent and should be done soon surpass $37,500, without including the clearing away of rubbish and houses in the temple at Luxor at $7,000 more. Nor does this sum include anything for guards and enclosures, and of these the mutilations and robberies last autumn at Beni-Hassan and Tell el-Amarna show the absolute necessity. This society, therefore, last year proposed to spend $2,500 a year to begin with for props and repairs, but asked that the money might be spent under the supervision of some Englishman. Then politics came in. The French, with their sentimental ideas about Bonaparte's expedition, and Champollion, and Mariette, and Maspero, claimed the Museum as a purely French institution, and refused to accept an Englishman there in any capacity. "Rather a German!" The director, M. Grébaut, was ordered to resign at once if any such thing were attempted. This

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would have been in many senses very satisfactory, except that the French would have attempted to put more spokes into the British wheel than they do now. So Egyptology and the Museum are sacrificed to politics to humor France. It can no longer be concealed or disguised that M. Grébaut is an indifferent Egyptologist and a poor museum director, and that there exist differences among the authorities which are bad for the Museum. He was bred to the law, somehow became a member of the French Archæological School in Egypt, and succeeded Maspero because there happened to be no other Frenchman available. This French school is, however, a very useful and creditable institution, though it has of late given its work chiefly to Coptic antiquities. In connection with the proposed English official, the name of Mr. Budge of the British Museum has been much mentioned.

PALFREY'S PEOPLE OF NEW ENGLAND.

History of New England. By John Gorham Palfrey. Vol. V. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1890.

DR. PALFREY'S diligence has not added much that is essential to what was known about the period covered by his fifth volume. The field had been too thoroughly reaped for profitable gleaning, and his views on American history too often expressed to warrant expectations of novel treatment. It is a compact and convenient résumé of the history of the "Great Awakening," the "French Wars," and of the events which led to the outbreak at Lexington in 1775. And it is something more: it completes Dr. Palfrey's 'History of New England,' one of the most considerable historical works coming from any American. Few historians have shown greater industry in gathering original materials, or a firmer grasp of complicated masses of facts, or greater skill in arranging them in perspicuous order, and presenting them in a narrative always clear and often felicitous.

Dr. Palfrey's scheme of a history of New England was full of difficulties. The people of the New England colonies were of the same race, it is true, and doubtless of a similar way of thinking on political and theological questions; but from the outset diversities of opinion or interest, or both, led them to seek different localities in which to develop their several autonomies. Nevertheless, from the coming of the Pilgrims to the withdrawal of Washington's army from Boston in 1776, the watersheds of New England's history inclined towards Boston Bay, and in Massachusetts was the main stream to which all other streams were affluent. But Dr. Palfrey's purpose was wider than is implied by his title: not merely to write a history of the several colonies as organized political bodies, but "the history of the people of New England," and, as we learn from the preface of his last volume, to show that "the work which in five generations was done in New England for the continent and the world, was done by Englishmen of Puritan training," and that, "as far as human judgment may trust itself, no other class of men contemporary with them was equal to the achievement."

For writing their history Dr. Palfrey possessed many qualifications, but his defects were serious. Without originality or special historical insight, he accepted the conventional theory of New England civilization, and did not go very far beneath the surface, or deal satisfactorily with facts which did not agree with his preconceived notions. The history of the New England colonies rests on patents, charters, or royal commissions; and for the interpretation of these, legal training, or natural legal insight, such as Belknap, Trumbull, Ramsay, and Deane possessed, is indispensable. Dr. Palfrey lacked both, and his constitutional discussions do not command respect. His imagination formed no pictures of domestic or social life, and we turn his pages in vain for the causes which in five generations changed Englishmen to Yankees, or to learn how, for example, living amid scenes of danger, they lost their inheritance of British pluck, and at the same time managed to preserve their moral courage and stamina unimpaired while acquiring wealth by slave-trading, piracy thinly disguised as privateering, and smuggling. He says of the Puritans that "the rank, the wealth, the chivalry, the genius, the learning, the accomplishments, the social refinements and elegances of the time were largely represented in their ranks. . . . The Earls of Leicester, Bedford, Huntington, and Warwick, Sir Nicholas Bacon, his greater son, Walsingham, Burleigh, Mildmay, Sadler, Knollys, were specimens of a host of eminent men more or less friendly to or tolerant of Puritanism." The wealth of England, he adds, was on the side of the Puritans, and so were many of the landed aristocracy, many of high rank in the army and navy; and, if few of the Elizabethan dramatists or writers of lighter literature are found among them, they may justly claim such names as Selden, Lightfoot, Gale, and Owen, and such poets as Spenser, Milton, and Marvell. Nor were they wanting in the amenities and graces of social life; and he records with satisfaction that Col. Hutchinson could dance and fence, loved music and played the viol, shot guns and bows, and delighted in painting, graving, and liberal arts. He completes what he has to say about the Puritan by adding that he was "a Scripturist," "a strict moralist," and, "in politics, the liberal of his day."

Doubtless Puritanism divided English society by a vertical line, on both sides of which were men of all classes and conditions. So far Dr. Palfrey is accurate. But there was difference in Puritans. Those who came to New England formed a horizontal stratum, not a vertical section, of English society. They were selected Puritans: above them, the nobility and gentry; below them, the peasantry and the rabble. Among them were two or three families of rank, and a few conventional gentlemen, who either died early or returned to England. No poets came; none addicted to art, science, or literature, save theological; none distinguished in statesmanship or arms, and but few who led the social life of Lincolnshire or of Suffolk. Some of their leaders were men of affairs and acquainted with law; a larger number Calvinistic clergymen, and a half-dozen with some pretensions to gentility; but mainly they were yeomanry, trades-people, mechanics, and servants.

Dr. Palfrey says that "the spirit of Puritanism was as old as the truth and manliness of England." This is quite true. Dr. Storrs has just told us that Moses, and several of the patriarchs, and Christ, and many notable pagans were Puritans. This is also true. But such truths do not describe the character or the work of those who came to New England. We may imagine, if we will, the statesmen, poets, and divines whom Dr. Palfrey has mentioned, engaged in ordaining party fences, the ringing of swine, or in an expedition against the Pequots, and burning them when found, or trying Mrs. Hutchinson for heresy, or inspecting her exhumed monstrous birth for evidence of a special providence, or we may imagine Col. Hutchinson and his family dancing and playing cards about Boston Bay; but such imaginings are not the history of the Puritan New England. Puritanism there was "the truth and manliness of England" specially vitalized and intensified by the Five Points of Calvinism enforced by the Synod of Dort. There were "State Puritans" and "Doctrinal Puritans" in old England, but only the latter found their way to New England. When Calvinism came into England, Armenianism came also; and between these two grew up a deadly hostility which did much to form the New England Puritans for their work, civil as well as ecclesiastical. King James, a renegade from Calvinism, allied himself to the Armenians; and so did Laud and his party who hounded the non-conforming clergy—a strange conjunction of liberalism in creed with absolutism in politics, which cost Charles I. his head, and, with other causes, George III. his colonies. All this and more Dr. Palfrey knew, but it was not an agreeable phase of his subject, and he left it alone.

The New England Puritans were narrow and intolerant, not because the age was narrow and intolerant; they were so from choice. They discussed the matter, and knew the difference between tolerance and illiberality quite as well as we do. Their testimony on this point is clear and explicit. Conscious of their mission, they made no apology for their principles; but they wished to be understood. It was their singleness of purpose, their absolute sincerity of belief, their utter conviction that happiness here and hereafter depended upon the acceptance of the Calvinistic scheme, which gave the New England Puritan his power and his success where others failed. Dr. Palfrey's misapprehension of this vital quality of New England Puritanism pervades his whole work, and no part of it more than the fifth volume. He treats "The Great Awakening" with entire candor, but as he would treat a modern revival of religion. He sees in it no connection with primitive Puritanism, or permanent influence upon other events of that day or of later days. He has noted in the second generation a declension from the high political spirit of the emigrants, apparent in the rise of parties at the revocation of the first Massachusetts charter, and during Dudley's administration, and he attributes this to the influx of commercial adventurers and the increase of wealth and luxury; but he fails to notice that this declension was rather in their theological belief, as is evident from the fact that the Mathers, Danforth, and others, the champions of civil and ecclesiastical liberty, and who as such merit and receive his commendation, were "faithful among the faithless found" in asserting and maintaining, with pathetic earnestness, the old Calvinistic doctrines.

There can be no doubt about the declension. It was manifest among the godly in the acceptance of the half-way Covenant and in some departures from discipline. Ratcliff, the Church of England chaplain of Andros, had preached in the Old South, and not without hearers; King's Chapel, Christ Church, and Trinity marked the growth of Episcopacy; Harvard College, having repudiated the Mathers, relegated herself to the mild doctrines of the "Dudleian Lectures," whose founder scrupled not at "Episcopal ordination"; and even more alarming to those of the ancient faith was the circulation of a book inculcating whispered belief in the salvation of all. To arrest "the great and visible decay of piety," a synod was called in 1725; but the

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Episcopal clergy of Boston, through the Bishop of London, invoked the royal interdiction. There was no mourning in Zion, nor comfort, until Edwards, at Northampton, seizing live coals from the altar of Calvinism, touched the hearts of his own people. Then came Tennent and Davenport in New England, and Whitefield from Georgia to Maine, preaching predestination, election, free grace, and the wrath to come upon the ungodly. The effects were instantaneous. By estimation there were 40,000 converts in New England alone. Old professors were quickened to new life; Calvinism had free course. And to Dr. Palfrey this was the end of it.

But it did not end thus. One of its later effects was manifest in the expedition against Louisburgh in 1745—more like a crusade than a military movement—when the undisciplined yeomanry of eastern New England, inspired by the preaching of Whitefield, who inscribed their banner with "Nil desperandum sub duce Christo," attacked the French Catholics behind the bastions of Louisburgh with the zeal of the Christians against the infidels in the Holy Land. And there was still another effect. Calvinism in New England, differing from Puritanism in old England, was much more than a creed. It formed a habit of mind which, becoming hereditary, has survived to the present day as character. The creed has changed, but character remains; and the constancy, zeal, and singleness of purpose, and intolerance already spoken of—in a word, the Calvinistic spirit—of the remote ancestor reappears even in those whose measure of liberality is the intensity of their dissent from opponents, or who limit the universality of salvation to such as accept the doctrine. Character thus formed was the greatest legacy of the New England Puritans to their descendants, for by that they have prevailed. Of this transforming and sustaining power of Calvinistic Puritanism Dr. Palfrey gives us no hint. As he frankly informs us, with Geneva he had no sympathy. It may be so with us, but the facts remain.

More than half of Dr. Palfrey's fifth volume is given to the causes and events which led to the American Revolution. It affords little evidence of insight, and is disfigured by singular misstatements of essential facts. No doubt the causes which led to forcible resistance, whether originating in Great Britain or in the colonies, were earlier and more effectively operative in New England than in the other colonies. But it is nowhere noticed by Dr. Palfrey as extraordinary that, on the arrival of the news of the passage of the Stamp Act, months before it was to take effect, and therefore not as against "intolerable oppression," as he says, the people from Maine to Georgia declared their determination to resist it by violence to persons and property which there was no effort to prevent or arrest. It is obvious, therefore, that there must have been other causes operative anterior to that event, and not confined to commercial centres quick to discern whatever was likely to interfere with their interests, but pervading agricultural communities remote from centres of business or intelligence. Another interesting fact not adverted to by Dr. Palfrey, notwithstanding his frequent reference to events passing in England, was the contemporaneous English Revolution, going forward almost with equal step, and with the same general purpose of enlarging popular liberty against prerogative, which reached results more surprising, if possible, than those which followed the American Revolution. In both countries the revolution was brought about by agencies acting efficiently in the British Parliament as in the colonial assemblies.

Still more extraordinary is it that Dr. Palfrey nowhere thinks it necessary to state that the American Revolution—as was the case with the contemporaneous English Revolution—was the result of party action, not of unanimous popular action. He has, indeed, something to say about Government officials, placemen, and commercial adventurers opposing what he would have us think was the grand movement of an entire people towards their objective point—colonial independence. This view of the Revolution may have arisen from Dr. Palfrey's theory respecting the New England settlers and their descendants. In his judgment the work was mainly theirs, and one which no other contemporary generations of men could have done. At times they may have been a little too strenuous, a little inclined to magnify small causes of discontent with the mother country or her representatives; but even in these respects it was an excess of a noble spirit of liberty without taint of self-interest, or an unwillingness to share common burdens with others, or to submit to regulations necessary and reasonable for the commerce and government of an empire of which they were parts. On the other hand, they were loyal and dutiful subjects, glorying in the name of Britons, and "without the most distant thought of independence." But when, after the close of the French war, the British Government unconstitutionally undertook to tax them, then, and for the first time, as one man, on axiomatic principles of English liberty enunciated by Hampden, Sidney, and Locke, they resisted the King and Parliament, and took the field for a seven years' war.

This is the old, conventional theory of the origin of the American Revolution. But, by the estimate of John Adams, two-fifths—some others say three-fifths—of the colonists, including a large proportion of the cultured classes, were Tories, who, by an organized system of terrorism not easy to be understood in these days, were obliged to flee the country or to fall in with measures of the Whigs. Free speech was not allowed, nor would silent adherence to their convictions answer. They must speak—speak loudly, and only in one way. They must act—act promptly in accordance with the most vehemently expressed sentiment. Now it agrees neither with reason nor with the facts to represent this party, as Dr. Palfrey does, as made up of British placemen, colonial office-holders, mercantile sojourners, and a few men like Hutchinson, Oliver, Samuel Quincy, Jonathan Sewall, Daniel Leonard, Timothy Ruggles, and the greater part of the Episcopal clergy, who malignantly sought the destruction of their native land, which they had done much to improve, and in which were their dearest interests. Yet such is the general impression one gets from his history.

The degree of Dr. Palfrey's partisanship would be incredible without proof, but a few examples must serve. The Seven Years' War had added more than 300,000,000 to the British debt; and "was it not equitable," Dr. Palfrey represents the British Government as asking, "that the North American colonists, as subjects of Great Britain, should pay their proportion of it?" especially since the argument might be plausibly maintained that part of it had been incurred in their defence. Dr. Palfrey ought to have known—and with the statutes before him, it would seem that he must have known—that the British Government never asked, nor, so far as appears, ever contemplated asking, the colonists to do any such thing. They were asked to pay one-third of the estimated expense of their future defence. The preamble of the first revenue act of 1764, and that of the Stamp Act, set forth the purpose to raise money "towards defraying the expenses of defending, protecting, and securing the colonies and plantations." Such was the purpose—not to pay the British debt, or any part of it; and neither in the Parliamentary debates nor elsewhere is there any warrant for Dr. Palfrey's amazing statement. Of like nature is his assertion that the duties collected from the Sugar Act, after certain deductions, were to be remitted to the royal Exchequer in hard money, thereby draining the colonies of their specie. Not a penny was to go abroad. The sums collected were to be paid into the receipt of his Majesty's Exchequer by certificates to be entered apart from all other moneys, and applied from time to time by Parliament to defraying the expenses above mentioned.

Of wilful perversion Dr. Palfrey was utterly incapable. On the contrary, no historian ever wished to be more accurate. He had his theory of New England history, and, according to that, the prevailing party at every stage of it were right in their principles, purposes, and mainly in their measures; and the other party were entirely and malignantly wrong, with nothing to excuse or palliate their conduct. The history of New England neither requires nor will it bear such treatment. It will bear telling in its entirety from 1620 to 1787. It has its seamy side, as has the history of every period, however glorious; and this it is neither wise nor necessary to conceal as Dr. Palfrey occasionally does; nor to place it in a wrong light, as he frequently does; nor to apologize for it, as he invariably does—sometimes on grounds of necessity, which has always been made to condone some of the most flagrant acts of political and ecclesiastical tyranny recorded in history.

Dr. Palfrey's insight into the essential character of men is no more reliable than his insight as to the causes and relations of events. Nor is he impartial. He conceals the well-known blotch on the character of Samuel Adams, and dwells upon charges, now known to be false, against the character of Hutchinson. He performed a great service in writing the history of the New England colonies so that it need not be rewritten; but the history of "the people of New England" requires an historian of a different order.

THE AMERICAN JOURNAL OF PHILOLOGY.

The American Journal of Philology. Edited by Basil L. Gildersleeve. Vols. I-X. Baltimore. 1880–1889.

THE completion of the first ten volumes of the *American Journal of Philology* is an event which deserves to be marked. The establishment of such a quarterly journal ten years ago was a daring enterprise. The English *Journal of Philology* was dragging out a sluggish existence, with occasional intervals of a year between the appearance of its parts. The American Philological Association was kept alive only by a few faithful members; it had listened to many wild vagaries during its early years, and had not yet settled down to its most sober work. The American classical scholars who were most interested in the new developments of their science took in French and German periodicals, to which some of them contributed.

Philology in this country is not so old as many suppose. Latin, Greek, and mathematics were so long the staples of the college curriculum that many believe college graduates of a

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hundred years ago to have been more widely read in the classics than men of to-day. This is a mistake, however. Latin was, indeed, the scholastic language, and was used on many occasions where men now use English; but that Latin was in quality not unlike the French of those boarding-schools where "no language but French is allowed at the table." The MS. of the Latin valedictory of Jonathan Edwards at Yale College in 1720 is in existence, and its Latinity is (to say the least) no better than that of the average "Latin salutatory" of 1890. No Greek but the New Testament seems to have been read in the regular course at Yale College until after the beginning of this century. "Previously to 1803," says the admirable Answers of the Immediate Government to questions proposed by a committee of the Overseers of Harvard College, in 1824, "candidates for admission were examined in Tully [Cicero], Virgil, the New Testament [in Greek], the rules of grammar and prosody, and the writing of Latin." In 1803, "the four fundamental rules of Arithmetick and Proportion, Sallust, and Collectanea Graeca Minora" were added to the requirements for admission to Harvard. In the college itself, for "several years prior to 1805, the course of Greek study consisted of about six books of Homer's Iliad, with a collateral translation in Latin, and about six books of Xenophon's Anabasis." Thus the Greek course of Harvard College at the beginning of this century was not broader nor more thorough than that of the best academies of the present time. And let no one think that the extra time was spent on mathematics. The extract quoted just above shows that the requirements for admission were raised in 1803 by the addition of the elements of arithmetic, but in the College only one recitation a week was given to mathematics, "except in the elements of geometry." In the Yale catalogue of 1833, candidates are asked to "observe that arithmetic is no longer studied in college, and an examination for admission is therefore held in both the theory and practice of arithmetic."

In Latin, the course at Harvard was confined to Livy, Terence, and Horace, until 1824, when "Terence is discontinued, and the following books are added to the Latin course, viz., Grotius de Veritate Religionis Christianae, 300 pages of Excerpta Latina, Cicero de Oratore, and two of the three volumes of Tacitus; besides Juvenal and Persius for those who choose Latin as a substitute for Hebrew" in Junior year.

The same year, 1805, which saw the improvement in the classical course at Harvard College, saw also the election of James Luce Kingsley to the Chair of Ancient Languages in Yale College. This scholar was one of the honored three (Day, Silliman, and Kingsley) whom the elder President Dwight gathered about him in the conduct of the College, and who made Yale what it was during the first half of the nineteenth century. Jeremiah Day was actively engaged in the service of Yale College as instructor for forty-eight years; Benjamin Silliman, for fifty-four years; Kingsley, for just half a century. Without being versed in many of the niceties of modern philology, Kingsley was an acute and broad-minded scholar, who did much for the breadth and accuracy of philological study in America.

In 1815, John Snelling Popkin, D.D., of whose oddities tradition has still much to say, the most thorough Greek scholar of his time in this country, was elected College Professor of Greek at Harvard, while Edward Everett was made Eliot Professor of Greek Literature in the same college. These were the first permanent appointments for Greek instruction in that institution. Everett never did much teaching, but the professorships of Kingsley and Popkin were no sinecures. The former, in addition to his duties as Professor of Greek, Latin, and Hebrew, was also the incumbent of the Chair of Ecclesiastical History. Dr. Popkin taught all the Greek that was taught to the three lower classes at Harvard at a time when that college had 300 students, or about as many as Williams College has now. While Everett had between forty and fifty hours of instruction (mostly lectures to the Senior class) each year, Dr. Popkin had 785 hours, or half as many each week as Everett had in the whole year. Classes were taught in largish divisions, divided alphabetically, not according to scholarship. Considerable quantities of Greek and Latin were read, but in general all students covered the same ground. Under such circumstances, advanced work in the classics was impossible. The necessary apparatus for scholarly work was lacking also. The country did not contain needed books. Among the thousand volumes given to Yale College by Bishop Berkeley, in 1733, was an excellent collection of classical books, unquestionably the best in the country. But in that collection, as it chanced, was no complete copy of Æschylus, and, a hundred years ago, neither Yale nor Harvard had a copy of Æschylus, and there is no evidence of the existence of a copy of that "father of Greek tragedy" in the libraries of Columbia or Princeton at that time. Harvard seems to have had no complete copy of the Attic Orators in 1790.

What has been said above indicates the rudimentary stage of classical scholarship in this country at the beginning of this century. Woolsey doubtless had more influence than any one else in setting a higher standard and giving a more vigorous tone to these studies. Hadley and Whitney were his apt pupils. Soon after the middle of this century two young Americans, Goodwin from Harvard and Gildersleeve from the University of Virginia, studied in Göttingen. These two scholars have been for years the unquestioned leaders of classical studies in America. Prof. Gildersleeve was called in 1876 to the first chair established in the Johns Hopkins University.

The combination of Prof. Gildersleeve's energy and a grant of assistance from his university was necessary for the establishment of the *American Journal of Philology*. No other university had funds for such a use. No other scholar was better fitted for the work by thorough training, by familiarity with all foreign work in his department, by broad interests and exact knowledge in a great variety of philological subjects, by a keen linguistic sense, and the sharpest eyes for typographical errors. With the best of German scholarship, Prof. Gildersleeve is never heavy nor dull. No one ever complained that the editor wrote too much for his *Journal*, and most readers have turned at once, on opening a number, to any article or note from his pen.

The *American Journal of Philology* has never lowered its high standard in order to present popular statements of philological truths. Perhaps it might have been more useful to the ordinary teacher in high schools and academies if it had not aimed to publish only what would be recognized as good original work. Of the 550 pages of the yearly volume, about 300 pages are devoted to original articles, and the remainder to book notices, reports (summaries) of philological periodicals, and bibliography. Almost exactly half the space, on the average, is given to articles of special interest to classical scholars. The rest of the space is devoted to articles and reports on linguistics, Sanskrit, Semitic languages, Teutonic languages, Romance languages, English, etc. Of the classical articles, about half have to do with Latin and half with Greek. The latter seem, in general, the more able—largely because of the editor's own series of articles on Greek syntax. But it is noteworthy that most of the articles on Latin subjects have to do with out-of-the-way authors, like Verrius Flaccus, Nonius Marcellus, and Maximinianus—not with the great authors—and that so few of our Latinists have contributed to the *Journal*. No article has treated of Cæsar, Catullus, Cicero, Ennius, Horace, or Ovid, and but two of Vergil. In linguistics, the reader finds valuable articles by Prof. Whitney on "What is Articulation," and "Logical Consistency in Views of Language," and by Prof. Bloomfield (Whitney's pupil) on the Greek accent and the "Ablaut of Greek Roots." Prof. J. Rendell Harris contributes studies on stichometry which make the *Journal* a store-house of information on that subject.

In general, the range of topics treated in the *Journal* is wide, from "Recent Platonism in England" to the "Reduction of EI to I in Homer"; from five articles on the "Pennsylvania-German Dialect" to the "Babylonian Woman's-language," from "Charleston Provincialisms" to the "Harbors of Ancient Athens" and the Revision of King James's New Testament. Only one article is to be found, in the ten volumes of the *Journal*, on the aboriginal languages of America, few articles on antiquities (a province which now may be left in part for the *American Journal of Archæology*), few on exegesis, few (and these mainly by Englishmen) on textual criticism. The department of book reviews is not so complete as it should be, but such reviews often have a money value, and are not easily obtained for such a periodical as the *Journal*. The reports of periodicals contain a great amount of philological information in a condensed form. The bibliography is important for those who do not have at hand the fuller German bibliographical publications.

The last number of the tenth volume contains a closely printed index of 44 pages to the work of these volumes, and is an index not merely to the philological work of this country, but to much of the best work in this department abroad, for ten years. The *Journal* has had in all 133 contributors, but several of these have furnished only reports. The only contributor to the first volume who has an article in the tenth volume is an Englishman—Robinson Ellis. The list of contributors to the first volume contains better-known names—Gildersleeve, Goodwin, Packard, F. D. Allen, Carter, Whitney, Toy, Nettleship, C. D. Morris, Ellis, Campbell, etc.—than the present list. Evidently the editor has not received such scholarly support as he had a right to expect. In the first volume four articles were by scholars at Yale and two by Harvard professors. In the last three volumes no article has appeared from either of those institutions. A fairly careful survey does not find in the ten volumes of the *Journal* a single article by any one at the colleges of Amherst, Brown, Dartmouth, or Williams. And yet this has been a period of unexampled philological activity. Very recently University Studies have been published at Harvard, Cornell, the University of Nebraska, and the University of Texas, while the *Journal of Archæology* and *Modern Language Notes* take much that would have gone to the *Journal of Philology*, and the *Classical Review*, which is lighter in its tone and aims

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to give a survey of work in classical philology, has been introduced to this country—to say nothing of the Transactions of the Philological Association, and the "Papers" of the Archæological Institute and the School of Classical Studies at Athens. There are manifest inconveniences in this scattering publication of American philological work, which perhaps overbalance the additional stimulus that is afforded by so many media.

The first ten volumes of the *American Journal of Philology* contain plenty of sound learning—a mass of valuable philological facts, of which many are not yet brought into ordinary hand-books. Few scholars would fail to profit (as the reviewer has profited) from the study or review of the back volumes of the *Journal*. For the honor and welfare of his science in this country, we trust that the editor will not weary of his efforts, and that he may obtain more abundant support.

BISHOP SIMPSON.

The Life of Bishop Matthew Simpson of the Methodist Episcopal Church. By George R. Crooks, D.D. Harper & Bros. 1890.

Bishop Simpson's fame as a preacher was without a second in the Methodist Church. He had also great administrative ability and high personal character. Moreover, his full maturity coincided with great national events, in which he bore an honorable part. Hence it is not strange that his biography has been written. It will be especially welcome to those who were of the same household of faith, and will make others pleasantly acquainted with his life. The reader is warned in advance that there are no letters or papers illustrative of the Bishop's relations with public men. This is the more to be regretted as he saw much of Lincoln and Stanton during the period of the war. But we get no new light on either of these men; no trait, no anecdote comes out, as might be expected from a relation that is represented to have been extremely intimate. There is significance in the absence of any religious expressions on the part of Lincoln in harmony with the Bishop's views. It was Bishop Simpson's lofty privilege to make the address at Lincoln's burial in Springfield, Illinois. The address, as given, is a very slight performance for an occasion of such transcendent interest. There is a flavor of apology in what is said of Lincoln's religious life, but the statement is made that "he believed in Christ the Saviour of sinners," which will probably go with the glozings and suppressions of Messrs. Hay and Nicolay, in their endeavor to improve upon the actual features of the man. The truth would seem to be that Lincoln, beginning with an "infidelity" comparable to Thomas Paine's, came afterwards to be extremely sympathetic with the opinions of Channing and Parker, rejecting the supernatural theory of Christianity, and especially the idea that Jesus was the sacrificial Saviour of mankind. His ideal church was one that should, without theological obscurity, stand for the fatherhood of God and the brotherhood of man.

Bishop Simpson was born in Cadiz, O., June 21, 1811. He died in Philadelphia, June 18, 1884. The pious memory of some venerable Methodist assigns his baptism to the sainted Asbury, but his mother's memory could not confirm this honor. The father, dying in Pittsburgh, Pa., soon after his son Matthew's birth, the family returned to Cadiz, where the future Bishop's youth was spent, with the exception of two months at Uniontown College, where he was teacher as well as scholar. Fortunate in a local academy and an uncle Matthew friendly to his aspirations, he could do better at home than the Western colleges of that time could do for him, and few Methodist preachers of his generation were so well educated as he. His conversion was singularly devoid of any spasm of emotion for one whose nature was so emotional. He studied medicine, and had begun to practise it when his thoughts turned to the ministry, agreeably to his mother's hopes and prayers. There is no pleasanter page in the book than that which bears the picture of her face. He entered the ministry only to leave it shortly for the chair of Natural Science in Allegheny College, at Meadville, Pa., an humble institution, preaching meantime in the vicinity, and enjoying mightily the college library. This was a good library for the time and place, a remarkable collection of books that had belonged to quaint old Dr. Bentley of Salem, Mass., being a part of it.

In 1839 the young teacher was invited to the presidency of Asbury University in Greencastle, Ind. The outward and visible sign of this institution's existence was a two-story building some forty feet square. The faculty was stronger by one person than that reported to Mr. Bryce by the president of a Western college — "Mrs. Jones and myself"—and there were but eleven students. There was, however, plenty of hard work to do, with much anxiety, and a full share of the preaching excursions hither and thither which were the order of the day. In bodily presence Simpson was weak, and was seldom recognized by strangers as the expected man; once getting the corner of the table for his solitary meal, because President Simpson was expected. His presidency lasted ten years, when he became editor of the *Western Christian Advocate*. He held this position till 1852, and took an honorable part in the discussion of the compromise measures of 1850, winning the golden opinion of S. P. Chase, and the "curses not loud but deep" of a good many of his Methodist brethren.

One of the most interesting chapters in the book is that giving an account of the General Conferences of 1844 and 1848. The former was the Conference which dealt with the case of Andrews, the slaveholding Maryland bishop. The author's style perceptibly warms and quickens in narrating the events of that exciting time. There is a refreshing frankness in his dealing with them: "Mr. Calhoun trod in the footsteps of the Southern Methodist leaders"; "for the claim of the inherent right of slavery to go anywhere in the Church, in the person of a slaveholding bishop, was followed by the claim of the right of slavery to go anywhere within the limits of the nation." The indictment of the Church as "the bulwark of slavery" gets several counts in the course of the narration. President Simpson was "in delightful obscurity" at this Conference. He was interested in the examination of the titles of church property and in the preparation of historical records. But in the Conference of 1848 he took a leading part in repudiating and stigmatizing the action of the Southern Methodist Church. In the Conference of 1852 he was actively opposed to lay delegation, of which he was one of the most powerful advocates at a later time.

In this year he was made a bishop without any log-rolling. Doubtless the temptation was less then than now, but the man would have been equal to a greater strain. His episcopal tours made him a frequent traveller, and his journeys took a wide range and were enlivened with a good deal of various incident. From such a record it is evident that the Bishop's office was no sinecure. We follow him to Oregon and California, and to the Holy Land in search of his lost health. He made good use of it, when found, in the endeavor to make the Methodist Church a compact Unionist and anti-slavery body. His special task was to hold fast the Methodists of the border States. He was often in Washington, and his relations with Lincoln were of the most cordial character. The two men were much alike in the homely simplicity of their manners and their discourse. Bishop Simpson made powerful speeches on great public occasions, taking an active part in Sanitary Commission work, being deputed by Lincoln to speak for him at Philadelphia, and putting forth all his strength for him in 1864. The battles of the war were succeeded in the Methodist Church by the battle for lay delegation, which was crowned with victory in 1872. It was in the earlier stages of the final conflict that Bishop Simpson did his most effective work for the good cause. At the time of Garfield's death he was in London, and spoke impressively at the memorial meeting best remembered for the address of Mr. Lowell.

There is a lack of definition in Dr. Crooks's account of Bishop Simpson's episcopal career. The multitude of incidents obscures the general impression. It was probably the routine work of a bishop, reinforced by preaching of uncommon brilliancy and force. There was so little in his dress or manner to suggest episcopal dignity that sometimes he preached as "Brother Simpson" and got found out as he went along.

> "To move among his countrymen as an unpretending, equal fellow-citizen was the study of his life. His dress was wholly unclerical, not even the customary white necktie indicating his vocation. Besides, there was ascribed to him at this period of his life [1853] an ungainliness of manner which gave him the air of a good, wholesome lay preacher from a rural district. [This is the man of the frontispiece portrait.] A certain lack of grace must have been visible, for it is a point of frequent mention in the newspaper notices of the period. It must be admitted that in hats he was always weak."

Sometimes he wore a hat so bad that he had to be taken with gentle violence to the hatter's for a more respectable article in that kind.

His voice, also, was against him till it was clarified and inspired by his emotion. Evidently his preaching was of that kind which cannot be reported. Something of the man went into it to make it great. What we can see, at this distance, is that it was perfectly simple, that it abounded in vivid illustrations, and that its aim was never to instruct, but always to persuade. Dr. Channing, advising a young preacher, said: "Never preach on any but great subjects." This was Bishop Simpson's rule. His subjects, as given by his biographer, are always large and general. His preaching was purely extemporaneous; he did not believe in any other. He scribbled a few notes beforehand, and left them at home. Such preaching lives in lives made better by its influence, if it lives at all. Bishop Simpson's sermons aimed to excite emotion—to shame, to shock, to terrify his hearers; to allure them, by a vivid presentation of the love of God, to repentance and a virtuous life. If his biographer has not done him great injustice, the Bishop's preaching was fairly representative of his life in its lack of any thoughtful quality. If ever any of the great questions in science, in philosophy, in criticism, in theology, which agitated his time, engrossed his interest, his biographer gives no sign of it. It is likely that he knew

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the measure of his strength, and preferred to do his own work in his own way to bungling at some other man's.

After the formation of the Christian Commission it would appear that Bishop Simpson lent his zeal to it, but in this connection everything is very loosely said. What is told of the formation of the Sanitary Commission is erroneously if not deliberately unjust to the personal head of that great enterprise. The date of Lincoln's anticipatory proclamation is given as September 28, 1862, a mistake for September 22. The extracts from Bishop Simpson's correspondence are almost without exception from his domestic letters, and they reveal the warmth and steadiness of his affections in no doubtful manner. The illustrations of the volume are a valuable addition to the text. The Bishop's "skeleton" on page 296 is that of one of his most famous sermons, and the bones are very few. The picture of the original "Asbury University," a one-story school-house (not the building of 1839 above mentioned, a picture of which is also given), is calculated to provoke a quiet smile. Best of all are the two pictures of Bishop Simpson. They are evidently the work of the publishers' best engravers. The treatment of the second is very different from that of the first, but which is the better it would be difficult to say.

TAYLOR'S ORIGIN OF THE ARYANS.

The Origin of the Aryans: An Account of the Prehistoric Ethnology and Civilization of Europe. By Isaac Taylor, M.A.; Litt.D.; Hon. LL.D. [Contemporary Science Series.] Scribner & Welford. 1890.

"THE whilom tyranny of the Sanskritists is happily overpast, and it is seen that hasty philological deductions require to be systematically checked by the conclusions of prehistoric archæology, craniology, anthropology, geology, and common sense." Such are the words with which Canon Taylor closes his industrious, but ambitious, attempt to give a summary of the speculations of several recent scholars upon the vexed question, Who were the so-called Aryans, and where did they originate? It is plain that a very wide range of special knowledge is needed in such an undertaking to pass judgment upon the force of the various arguments urged; and it may well be questioned whether it will be any gain to human knowledge to have "the tyranny of the Sanskritists" replaced by that of "the craniologists," when we call to mind Oscar Peschel's caution that "craniological characters alone are not to be relied upon."

Dr. Taylor is a well-known and learned philologist, but his competence in the other departments of science to which he has referred has yet to be proved. That he is not proficient in prehistoric archæology, the first which he calls upon to check the conclusions of his brother philologists, is evident from his remark that "the flint flakes which constitute the earliest evidences of the existence of man in Europe, afford no criterion of language or even of race" (p. 55). Every prehistoric archæologist knows that "palæolithic implements" are not "flint flakes"; while that the former, only, "constitute the earliest evidences of the existence of man in Europe" is the opinion of all of them, except the few believers in the existence of the Tertiary man. Dr. Taylor quotes archæological statements without noticing their inconsistency with each other, and proceeds to draw important inferences from them. After having informed us that "the stone implements from the kitchen-middens, or shell-mounds, of Denmark are more archaic in character than those from the Swiss lake-dwellings" (p. 60), he states that "one of the oldest lake-dwellings is that of Schussenreid, on the Feder-See, in Würtemberg, which, from the character of the flint implements, has been thought to be coeval with the Danish kitchen-middens" (p. 153). Subsequently this becomes: "The types of the flint implements found in the lake-dwellings of Schussenreid are thought to be more archaic than some of those from the kitchen-middens" (p. 242). When it is known that, in the very passage quoted from, Dr. Keller informs us that among the remains found at Schussenreid were beautifully made arrow-heads, fabricated out of various silicious materials, the prehistoric archæologist may well feel inclined to question inferences made to rest in large measure upon the fancied contemporaneousness of the lake-dwellers of Switzerland, the very earliest of whom unquestionably must be placed in the Age of Polished Stone, with the men of the Danish kitchen-middens, who were certainly ignorant of the use of implements so fashioned.

We are constrained to think, therefore, that the author is scarcely qualified to pronounce judgment so confidently as he has done in favor of the Celtic, as opposed to the Teutonic, theory of the origin of the Aryans. But his book is a very interesting and readable one, and is the first to bring to the knowledge of English readers the remarkable change that is going on in the views of European scholars on the Continent upon the origin of the Indo-European races. Dr. R. G. Latham was the first to raise the standard of revolt against the Sanskritists, in 1851, by this incidental remark: "I doubt whether any man living has ever recognized the opposite alternative, viz., that of the Sanskrit and its allied languages coming from Europe" ('The Germania of Tacitus, with ethnological dissertations and notes: Epilegomena,' p. cxxxix.). But that school has had a notable champion in Max Müller, the fascination of whose style has done so much to give vogue to the Asiatic hypothesis, which he still maintains, despite the well-known opposition of Prof. W. D. Whitney. But Prof. Sayce, with characteristic hardihood, has been the first of its former supporters to announce his conversion to the theory that "the Aryan race had its first seat not in Asia, but in the Baltic provinces and northern Germany"; a view which he has set forth, in his usual interesting fashion, in an article upon "The Primitive Home of the Aryans," in the *Contemporary Review* for July, 1889.

The real assault, however, upon the ancient position was led by Theodore Benfey in 1869, when he reached the conclusion that, "since the investigations of the geologists have established the fact that, from immemorial times, Europe has been the abode of man, the whole of the arguments which have been adduced in favor of the migration of the Aryans from Asia fall to the ground." This was followed in 1871 by E. L. Geiger's arguments, mainly founded upon the tree names of the primitive Aryan vocabulary. The most convincing of these was that of the beech, the word denoting which means the oak in Greek; whereas the beech is unknown in Greece. Geiger, therefore, thinks that the Greeks migrated from a land of beeches to a land of oaks, and transferred the name of the tree with "edible" fruit from the one to the other, in opposition to Max Müller's explanation that the word originally denoted the oak, and was transferred to the beech at the time when the oak forests of Jutland were replaced by beeches. We have not space to give an account of the interesting discussion upon this point, which will be found clearly stated in a valuable article upon "The Ethnological Significance of the Beech," in *Science*, November 15, 1889.

In the same year, 1871, G. Cuno first insisted upon the proposition that race is not necessarily coextensive with language; that the existing extension of Aryan speech is largely the result of conquest and the incorporation of subjugated peoples; that the undivided Aryans must have been a numerous, nomad, pastoral race; and that the great plain of central Europe must have been their original home, as alone supplying the necessary geographical conditions.

After several contributions to the discussion by philologists, in 1878 Theodor Pösche brought forward anthropological arguments to show that while there might be Aryan languages spoken by races wholly unrelated, only the tall, blue-eyed, fair-skinned, dolicocephalic German race could claim to be the primitive Aryans; and that they originated in the great Rokitno marshes, where the river Dnieper takes its rise, and afterwards extended themselves as the pile-dwellers of Switzerland and upper Italy.

Karl Penka, in 1883, employing similar arguments to Pösche's, maintained that the race described by him had its original home in Scandinavia, where it is to be found in its greatest purity; and that it spread southward in neolithic times, and conquered the original populations. In the same year, 1883, Otto Schrader adopted the European hypothesis, mainly upon philological grounds, which he has developed in a later work, that has recently appeared in an English dress, in which the archæological material bearing upon the question is collected and reviewed. He, too, has reached the conclusion that the plains of southwestern Russia were the cradle of the Aryan race.

We have thus attempted merely to mention the more important recent contributions to the discussion of this difficult problem, and would commend to all who are interested in its study an extended bibliography of the subject of "The European Origin of the Aryans," compiled by Mr. A. P. C. Griffin, and just published in the Bulletin of the Boston Public Library for April, 1890. We have only space to indicate very briefly the conclusions reached by Dr. Taylor in the work under notice, and regret our inability to give in detail the reasons upon which they are grounded. He believes that in neolithic times Europe was occupied by four distinct races. A short, dark, dolicocephalic people dwelt on the Mediterranean and Atlantic shores, from Italy and Spain to Britain, to whom the name *Iberian* has been given; they buried their dead in long barrows, and seem to be related to the Hamitic race. In central France dwelt a short, black-haired, and extremely brachycephalic people resembling the Lapps, who seem to have belonged to the Turanian family; to them the name of *Ligurian* has been given. The Celto-Slavic race occupied central Europe: tall, muscular, brachycephalic, with yellow or red hair, and florid skins, they invaded Britain towards the close of the neolithic period, and buried their dead in round barrows. In the north dwelt the Scandinavian or Teutonic race, superficially resembling the Celts, but radically distinguished by the shape of the skull; they were tall, large-limbed, and fair-haired, but strongly dolicocephalic.

It is only one of the last two races that can be regarded as the original Aryans, if their home is to be sought in Europe, and the question which it was has been debated with needless acrimony. The Germans have contended

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for their own race, and the French for theirs, as having been the introducers of the germs of civilization in Europe. Dr. Taylor has pronounced for the Celts in the following unmistakable language: "The energy, the self-will, the fondness for adventure, and the love of combat, which have enabled the Teutonic peoples to extend their rule over the world, come from the dolicocephalic race; but the intellect and genius of Europe, the great writers, and more especially the men of science, belong rather to the brachycephalic race, which has so profoundly modified the physical type in Germany, France, Italy, and England" (p. 245).

Court Life under the Plantagenets (Reign of Henry the Second). By Hubert Hall. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1890. Pp. vi, 271. 8vo.

THE title of this book does not give a clear idea of its contents. Either "English Institutions under Henry II." or "England under Henry II." would be a more appropriate title. The author, in his preface, admits that no scenes either of love or chivalry are depicted in these pages, and that the knight-errant and jester are wholly excluded from consideration. Seven out of thirteen chapters have almost nothing to do with court life, even in the broadest acceptation of the term.

The reader is introduced in chapter i. to Richard de Anesti, a baron of Hertfordshire, who receives a visit from his friend William Fitz-Nigel, a brother of Henry II.'s famous treasurer. The host describes to his guest the organization and economy of the manor of Anesti. Richard then accompanies William to London, and there meets his brother John the Clerk, Richard Fitz-Nigel, and other old friends. He wanders about in London guided by John or Richard, who explain to him the sights and institutions of the place: the buildings and streets of London, its Jews, commerce, and amusements, the royal household, the King's council, his court of justice, and the Exchequer (ch. ii.–ix.). Richard then follows the King's court to Windsor, where Henry II. and his courtiers indulge in hawking, to which subject a large part of chapter x. is devoted. Thence Richard goes with the court to Waltham Abbey, the organization of which is described (ch. xi.). Next we find him at St. Alban's, where the reader is introduced to the Schoolmen (ch. xii.) and a Martyrology, or the Passion of St. Amphibalus (ch. xiii.). The work, in its plan, resembles Palgrave's 'Merchant and Friar,' but is not as skilfully executed as the latter.

Little seems to be gained by adopting this mode of publishing the results of original investigation. There is not enough plot in the story to attract the ordinary novel-reader, who will also be dismayed by meeting many technical terms unintelligible to him; nor will the narrative satisfy the more sober historical student, who desires a more complete presentation of facts, together with chapter and verse for every important assertion. As it is, the book before us is neither romance nor history. It is history more or less warped by being forced into a mould not suited to preserve all its true outlines. It is history covered with a very thin sugar-coating of romance, which will not make the solid morsel more palatable to any class of readers.

Another fault of the book, to which all classes of readers will object, is the obscurity that marks and mars many parts of the narrative, for example, the description of an ancient tally on p. 119; other examples will be found on pp. 124–127, 142, 151. This same lack of clearness is perceptible not only in the general title of the book, as already indicated, but also in the headings of the chapters. "Commerce" would certainly be a more appropriate title for chapter iii. than "Guilds," for little is said concerning the latter and much concerning the former. Chapter iv. is called "Games," but it is almost entirely devoted to exercises of religion and learning. The subject of chapter vi. is "The King's Council," but less than half of the chapter deals with this topic, and the real functions of that body are very incompletely portrayed, nothing at all being said of its legislative powers. Chapter ix. is headed "At the Exchequer"; chapter viii. deals with the same general subject, but has a different title.

Another general weakness of the author is his use of later sources to explain certain institutions of a much earlier period (pp. 217–230). For example, in describing London during the twelfth century, he derives much of his evidence from the records of the fourteenth century, ignoring the great development of commerce, of craft gilds, and other civic institutions that took place under Henry III. and the three Edwards. Thus on p. 42 he ascribes to the reign of Henry II. a vast expansion of weaving and cognate industries that really took place not less than a century later, though it may be admitted that much industrial progress was made in the reigns of Henry I. and Henry II. It is legitimate for an historian to fill up gaps in our knowledge by reasoning from the analogies or survivals of a later period; but this method of investigation is easily abused, and often leads to the perversion of truth.

The book before us also contains errors of detail, and many statements of fact that are at least questionable. We will notice only a few of these. On p. 19, scutage is said to consist of twenty shillings for each knight's fee; but Stubbs and the 'Dialogus de Scaccario' both give twenty shillings as the usual scutage under Henry II. We doubt the statements that Henry I. granted a charter to the Jews of England (p. 33), and that the "Saxon laws" consign the ownership of the Jews to the crown (p. 233). Again, on p. 33, the author speaks of the status of the Jews before the Norman Conquest with more definiteness than the sources warrant. If Mr. Hall had carefully read the lectures delivered at the Anglo-Jewish Exhibition, he would have found a clearer and fuller statement than his own (pp. 233–234) regarding the towns in which Jews were allowed to reside. His list of such towns under Henry II. omits Hereford and Wallingford. We cannot agree with the author's excessive disparagement of mediæval satirical poetry as a source of historical information (p. 240). Much of it is certainly as useful and authentic as the satire of Walter Map, which Mr. Hall does not hesitate to use with the greatest freedom. On p. 88 the author speaks as though the Exchequer and "Curia Regis," under Henry II., each had a separate staff of officers. This is contrary to the view of the best authorities, and cannot be accepted without proof. Bigelow's 'History of Procedure' should not have been omitted from the list of authorities for the study of Anglo-Norman jurisprudence (p. 250). From the remarks on pp. 136–137 regarding murder (taken from the 'Dialogus de Scaccario') one would infer that presentment of Englishry had already ceased to exist in 1177; but it continued in vogue in the thirteenth century, and was not abolished until 1340.

Notwithstanding these strictures, we do not hesitate to say that students of history will find much of value in Mr. Hall's book, many portions of which bear evidence of conscientious research among original records. On some of the topics which he discusses (notably the Exchequer) Mr. Hall is a recognized authority. We may also add that the illustrations are numerous and admirable.

Scouting for Stanley in East Africa. By Thomas Stevens. With illustrations. Cassell Publishing Co. Pp. vii, 288, 8vo.

MR. THOMAS STEVENS, the bicyclist, out of somewhat scant material has written a very readable book. He was sent out early last year by the New York *World* to East Africa to find Stanley. As the Germans refused to allow him to go into the interior through their possessions, he made his way to the region at the foot of Mt. Kilima-njaro. Here he spent a few months hunting and "scouting" for news, but, being unsuccessful in this, he returned to Zanzibar. It was not till the end of November that tidings came to this place that the relief expedition was approaching the coast through the German territory. Mr. Stevens, accompanied by only five natives, managed to evade the frontier guards, and joined the party sent to meet Stanley, whom they found four or five days' march inland.

The reader of Thomson's and Johnston's well-known works will find nothing new in the description of the wonderfully beautiful and fertile region at the foot of the great snow-clad mountain, nor of the remarkable tribe which roams the vast plains to the northward. But those who are unfamiliar with these writers will be much interested in Mr. Stevens's account of the paradise of Taveta, the Chaga States, and the Masai. Particularly good is his description of the make-up and start of a caravan of porters for the interior. His hunting adventures, principally with buffalo and rhinoceroses, are entertaining, but differ in no respect from those of a hundred other sportsmen. The most interesting chapters, of course, are those relating to Stanley and Emin Pasha. There is a graphic picture of the great explorer's appearance, as well as of his camp and the expedition upon the march. This was headed by Mr. Stanley on a donkey "which was presided over by a young man with a red turban, red knee-breeches, and red shirt, and who seemed particularly proud of the exalted position to which he had, on his personal merits, climbed." Immediately behind followed his personal attendants, thirty or forty picked men, distinguished from the rest of the porters by their red blankets.

Stanley's officers appear to have talked freely with the correspondent of the *World;* but whether they would have done so had they known that what they said was to be published, might be a question. Of their leader one declared, "He is the hardest man to understand that any of us ever came in contact with or ever expect to."

"There have been times," replied another to an inquiry as to his treatment of them, "when we have thought Stanley a harsh, unfeeling man, who had no sympathy for the sufferings of others, and was bent on working us to death. I have seen days when, if I could have had the ear of the public at home, I should have felt inclined to vent, in the columns of the paper, some grievances that seemed very real, I can assure you, at the moment. But, now it is all over, I can look back and see that Stanley was right. Without the hard, exacting work, we should never have pulled through, and Stanley's seeming harshness never goes beyond the point necessary for the success of the undertaking he is engaged in."

According to Surgeon Parke, Stanley was in reality a tender-hearted man. "Whenever there was important work to be done," he added, "so long as we could totter on our feet,

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half-dead perhaps with fever, Stanley demanded from us our last gasp of energy and strength. But, the strain of the situation over, Stanley was himself again—a kindly, though never effusive, soul."

During the march to the coast Mr. Stevens had several conversations with Emin Pasha, the substance of which is given in the closing chapter. Among other things he expressed the opinion that the Mahdist rebellion was not a religious movement, but simply an uprising of the Sudanese against the corrupt Egyptian rule. In explanation of his own failure to maintain himself through the unfaithfulness of his officers, he said that "the Equatorial Province has always been considered a sort of Egyptian Siberia by the authorities at Cairo. Most of my officers were sent to me as a punishment for committing some crime or some act of insubordination in Egypt." At another time he said:

"The Egyptian Government has always sent the worst of everything to the Equatorial Province. Even the ammunition which Mr. Stanley brought, sent to us from the Government magazines at Cairo, was for the most part utterly worthless. They were old, damaged stores that the corrupt officials at Cairo took this opportunity of getting off their hands, to cover up their wretched speculations. Percussion caps were sent to us not one in a dozen of which would strike fire. This was not the Khédive's fault, nor, of course, Mr. Stanley's. It was very discouraging to my poor soldiers to find that, even when so much trouble had been taken to reach us, they had sent us worthless ammunition mostly. This outrageous treatment from the Egyptian Government, while a powerful enemy was within our very gates, would have shaken the loyalty of any body of troops in the world. Yet my brave fellows fought a great battle with Omar Saleh at Dufile, after Mr. Jephson had joined me and Mr. Stanley had returned to the Congo to bring up his rear column. On this occasion we captured a very interesting relic, the first Mahdist flag, the sacred banner of the Mahdi, that was carried into Khartum after the death of Gen. Gordon."

The Stanley part of Mr. Stevens's instructions was very fairly carried out, but he seems to have neglected other parts of considerable importance to his employers. He has very little new to say about the slave trade, and nothing at all "about the troubles between the Germans and the Arabs." Nor does he give us any information, as he was directed to do, about Zanzibar and its political and commercial situation. If he had employed the three months during which he waited for Stanley in studying the actions of the Germans on the coast, in finding out what the two great rival companies had accomplished, and what were their prospects in the future, he would undoubtedly have written a book of considerable value. As it is, it does not rise above the rank or importance of an ordinary letter to the newspapers.

The Civil War on the Border: A narrative of operations in Missouri, Kansas, Arkansas, and the Indian Territory during the years 1861–'62, etc. By Wiley Britton, War Department. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 8vo, pp. xvii, 465.

WE have here a straightforward effort to tell the story of the campaigns in Missouri and the adjacent territory during the first two years of the civil war. The author served on the national side, and most of what he narrates occurred under his own eye. He is able, therefore, to give more of local color than a mere compiler could give, and estimates the officers and men on both sides according to the impression they made upon those who were in contact with them. The character of the troops is also brought out, incidentally, in an instructive way, showing something of the peculiar quality of the well-organized and disciplined, as well as of the irregulars, the "jayhawkers," the Indian contingent, and the "guerillas."

While we are thankful for what the author has given us in this respect, we cannot help regretting that he has not given us more. Each theatre of operations has something peculiar to itself. The "border-ruffian" struggle on the confines of Missouri and Kansas had imprinted peculiar traits upon the people, and modified the conflict when it came under the outer guise of regular warfare. The fact that the half-civilized Cherokees and Creeks were also divided between the Union and the Confederacy introduced another peculiar element into the struggle. The author could profitably have put much more of his strength upon the characteristics thus brought into play, and so have given us what no one but one to the manner born could supply. We can search the official records for ourselves. We are in danger of losing the things which made the fight on that border different from any other.

The narrative is a clear and evidently a conscientious one. The writer's impressions of the officers in high command are given with frankness, and with no more prejudice than is almost necessarily begotten in a subordinate whose point of view is often limited by narrow bounds. The grasp is not large nor strong, but the writer's purpose is evidently honest, and we may accept him as a candid witness without pinning our faith too closely to his opinions or his criticisms.

We are puzzled a little by his statement that he is not aware that any one "has hitherto undertaken to give an account of the operations extending over that section during the period covered by this volume." The "section" must be limited by boundaries that exclude the engagements at Wilson's Creek, Pea Ridge, Lexington, etc., or the author must be strangely ignorant of what has been written. Snead's brilliant volume, 'The Fight for Missouri,' has made the Confederate side of it familiar to readers of our war history.

The style of the book has, for the most part, the merit of simplicity and directness, though the author occasionally lapses into rhetorical efforts which are not entirely happy. These are not frequent, however, most of the narrative having the good quality of freedom from proofs that the author was making any special effort at fine writing. It is a valuable addition to the list of special memoirs on the war written by men who took part in what they describe.

The book is beautifully printed by the Knickerbocker Press, with tasteful head and tail-pieces to the chapters. Folding maps of the fields of Wilson's Creek, Pea Ridge, and Prairie Grove are given, but a book of this character should have an outline map of the whole theatre of operations, and smaller sketch maps on the page to illustrate the several engagements and movements. Readers ought not to be put to the trouble of hunting up atlases in perusing such a book, and even atlases lack the necessary detail.

Social Aspects of Christianity, and Other Essays. By Richard T. Ely, Ph.D. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

THE predominant "social aspect" of Christianity revealed by these essays, we regret to say, seems to be uncharitableness. The writer "deals damnation round the land" after a most promiscuous fashion, and preaches Christian love in a manner that might well arouse the envy of the most polemical divine that ever devoted those who differed with him to perdition. "The leaders of the Church," he says, "the representative men and women in the Church, profess to love the working classes, but, as a matter of fact, they do not love them." The feeling is reciprocal, but, on the other hand, "Christ moved among the masses, and understood them, and to-day the poorest laborer and the most obstinate trades unionist, yes, even the despised walking delegate, will feel a strange attraction for that wonderful Being who spoke words which go straight to the heart." It is not generally questioned, we suppose, that the words of Christ appeal to all mankind, but the irreverent invocation of his name which is painfully common in the ordinary conversation of persons of the class mentioned, perhaps justifies the description of the attraction which they feel as strange. For Christians, again, luxury is for ever an impossibility; their attire especially "should be plain and simple, such as will not divert attention from the word of God." Nor is there to be any quibbling about this; "the simple dressing so often admired in fashionable churches is frequently more expensive, far more expensive, than the gaudiest dress in poorer churches," and "an entire absence of everything in dress which cultivates worldliness and awakens a desire for perishable riches must be enjoined. Absence of such dress as will awaken envious desires in weak natures is equally a matter of course."

We were for some time at a loss to understand how the Christian who had attained such entire absence of dress as to extinguish worldliness and the desire for perishable riches, could further decently denude himself or herself, so as to lull to sleep envious desires in weak natures; but we are convinced that the author added the sentence last quoted for a personal reason. He is in some sense a rival of Mr. Edward Atkinson in philanthropical work—Mr. Atkinson pointing out to working people the means of bettering themselves by economy, fidelity, industry, and invention, while the author recommends the expenditure of their savings in the support of the Knights of Labor and the maintenance of industrial enterprises directed by our legislatures and city governments—in which work Mr. Atkinson is thought by many to have done more good than the author of these essays has mischief. Now, it may not be generally known that Mr. Atkinson occasionally appears before his audiences in a plain and simple suit of clothes, well-made, well-fitting, and of good material, but apparently not at all of a character to divert attention from the word of God, or to cultivate worldliness, or awaken a desire for perishable riches. The cost of these garments is represented by Mr. Atkinson to be something like $8, so that they are certainly not expensive, and would seem to conform to all the requirements of Christianity. Yet such is the perversity of weak human nature that all the men in the audience have their envious desires immediately awakened by what would perhaps be called by our author the lack of absence of such dress, and may be heard to lament the sad estate into which their tailors have brought them. How much keener, then, must be the feeling of one who aspires to rival Mr. Atkinson in the favor of the public!

That our theory of the interpretation of this sentence is correct we think is established by our author's reprobation of Mr. Atkinson's views. That Mr. Atkinson is meant, no one who has read his recent publications can question, when Dr. Ely mentions, as one of the "reli-

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gious subjects" which the Church ought to take up, "a refutation of those ridiculous persons who would have us believe that wage-earners now receive nine-tenths of all the wealth produced—quackery and jugglery which must delight Satan."

But the utter hollowness of the professions of modern Christians is most severely reprehended by our author in his exposure of their heartless neglect of the American Economic Association, an institution of which he is secretary. The purpose of this organization "is to study seriously the second of the two great commandments on which hang all the law and the prophets," and the author pathetically puts to his readers the query, "Now you would imagine this something to appeal to every Christian, would you not?" It may appeal to them, but, like spirits called from the vasty deep, they do not respond to the appeal. The American Economic Association has piped unto them, but they will not dance; they are apathetic and indifferent when asked to contribute even small sums, and few of them, comparatively, "seem to care to do anything more for their suffering fellow-creatures than to administer some kind of soothing-syrup." The situation, we apprehend, is hopeless unless the author's doctrine of "coercive philanthropy" can be applied, and Christians who neglect so plain a duty be made to sweat for it.

It may seem a waste of space to call attention at such length to this ill-tempered screed; but so much of this wretchedly materialistic perversion of the teaching of Jesus is now tolerated, if not encouraged, by the Church, that it is well to consider whether it does not seriously menace her usefulness. The attitude of the Church towards natural science has repelled from her a large proportion of the intelligence of the community, and if she is to surrender herself to the control of the "Christian Socialists," a still larger proportion must in self-respect withdraw. At this stage of the world's development it is doubtful if such a defection would not be permanent; for it might prove that functions hitherto exercised by her, if now resigned, could never be resumed.

A Comparative Glossary of the Gothic Language, with Especial Reference to English and German. By G. H. Balg, Ph.D. With a Preface by Prof. Francis A. March, LL.D. Mayville, Wis.: The Author; New York: B. Westermann & Co.

Dr. Balg's 'Gothic Glossary,' of which a preliminary notice was given in these columns, has been appearing in instalments since 1887. Its last part, containing the promised preface by Prof. F. A. March, and the author's introduction, together with an appendix and indexes, enables us to give a critical estimate of the whole work, and to determine how well it has justified the good-natured encouragement of such well-known philologists as Professors Whitney, Max Müller, and Skeat, whose "commendatory testimonials" have heralded the book in the publisher's announcement. The Glossary is, besides this, of no slight importance in that it is the first extended work ever produced in America in any department of purely scientific Germanic lexicography, and may justly be viewed, in its indication of increased scholarly attention in this direction, as a hopeful sign of the times. In its character, however, as a "scientific comparative glossary of the Gothic language," it is open to some degree of criticism for the use it has made of the material at hand and the total result attained. While it has been, in fact, unmistakably, to no small extent a labor of love carried out with manifest painstaking, the work bestowed has not always been well directed, and the whole appears to lack a sufficiently definite purpose. Gothic dictionaries cannot, from the nature of the case, be written every year or every decade. The only Gothic glossary in English down to the appearance of this work was Skeat's 'A Mœso-Gothic Glossary,' published in 1868, and now wholly superseded by more exact textual criticism and more accurate etymological knowledge. There was, consequently, a place for a work that should embody all the late results of investigation in this particular field, and the opportunity, because it is so rare, should have been carefully used to the fullest and minutest extent of the material.

The Glossary contains, according to the author in his introduction, "the extant words of the Gothic language." In reality there have here been glossed the Ulfilas translation, the commentary on John called by Massmann the 'Skeireins,' the fragments of the 'Calendar,' and the signatures of the Naples and Arezzo documents, as contained in the best edited text that we have, viz.: Bernhardt's 'Vulfila, oder die gothische Bibel.' Completely to justify the author's statement, the few runic inscriptions now conceded to be Gothic ought to have been, as they very properly might have been, incorporated in the book. These consist, to be sure, only in the names on the Kowel and Müncheberg spear-heads and the *gutaniowi hailag* of the Bucharest ring; but because they have been directly transmitted they are clearly of value in a vocabulary as circumscribed as is the Gothic in its known constituents. The indirectly transmitted words and names have been collected elsewhere and do not properly come into consideration here. In transliteration, Dr. Balg has wisely followed the rational orthography of the second edition of Braune's grammar, which prints a special ligature for what is according to the usual transcription the twenty-fifth sign of the Gothic alphabet (voiceless *w;* English *wh*), variously represented elsewhere by *hv*, *hw*, *w;* *q* for the sixth sign (labialized *k;* Latin *qu*), variously represented by *kv*, *kw*, *qu*, *q;* *w* (half-vowel) for the twenty-second sign, usually represented by *v*. In the order of words in the glossary the ligature naturally follows *h*, as *q* follows *k*.

Dr. Balg disclaims the idea of having "tried to write a complete etymological dictionary of the Gothic language," and Prof. March, in the preface, calls attention to the fact that though "this glossary is largely occupied with comparative etymology, it should not be judged as a scientific etymological dictionary merely." Completely to have fulfilled the measure of its usefulness, however, it should have been a scientific etymological dictionary, thorough, and, on the present basis of comparative grammar, complete and definitive. There is no such book, and there is need of one. Another valid criticism touches the presence of extraneous material—material, to be sure, perfectly good in its place, often well worked out, and, it may be, suggestive to an etymological dilettante. Such material is, furthermore, not infrequently placed where no one would think of looking for it and must happen upon it incidentally. A similar difficulty occurs in the cases where, to use the language of the prospectus, the Glossary "treats of cognate Romanic words that have supplanted or increased the number of English words." This part of the work, moreover, is, as it could not but be, wholly desultory, and it and instances from German similar to those from English should have been left to Skeat and Kluge, in whose pages they will still invariably be sought in spite of their incorporation here. Just this fact, that in order to make the English and German part reasonably complete it has been found necessary to bring in the sort of material described, is argument enough, even if there were no other, as to the fallacy of making Gothic the basis of a comparative Germanic dictionary, which is what this book really is. In such a dictionary, instead of being proceeded from, Gothic, with its limited vocabulary, should be led up to wherever it is possible. Had the author used the room employed in citing the reference place of every word glossed, the book would have been infinitely more valuable and not as voluminous as he has feared.

In the preparation of the Glossary the author has made in the main an intelligent use of the best subsidia on the subject, but it does seem that in cases of etymological doubt we might have been spared the not infrequent references to Diefenbach. Although it is not always possible, with the order of arrangement, to connect the reference with its particular shade of meaning, the Gothic words are usually well glossed in their different significations. In etymologies, according to the author, the dictionaries of Kluge, Skeat, and Schade, and Feist's 'Grundriss' have been most often used. Kluge, unfortunately, in a few instances has been imperfectly understood, and some errors in statement have thus crept in. The separate indexes at the end, of Greek, Latin, English, Old Norse, Old Saxon, and German words opposite the Gothic word glossed, serve, in some degree, to offset the peculiar disposition of the material.

Dr. Balg has evidently selected Gothic as his especial field of labor. Besides the present work, he published, in 1883, an English translation of Braune's Gothic Grammar. He announces, furthermore, as well under way, an edition of the Gothic texts, with a syntax and notes.

Golf. By Horace G. Hutchinson. [The Badminton Library.] Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

It has been said of the Badminton Library of books on Sport that it differs from all similar collections in that the writers are not only experts in the sports they describe, but also more or less skilful in the use of the pen, whereas most sporting books are written either by sportsmen who are no writers, or by writers who are no sportsmen. The present volume possesses this combination of attractions, and is ushered in by a chapter on the history of the game of golf from the ever-ready pen of Mr. Andrew Lang. The word "golf" he connects with the German *Kolbe* and the Belgian *chole*, both signifying "a club," and the origin of the game itself seems to be lost in the mists of the middle ages. It was played to such an extent in the time of James VI. of Scotland that that thoughtful monarch clapped a prohibitory duty on golf balls imported from Holland, not, as Mr. Lang would have us believe, because "it was not then the crazy fashion to encourage foreign at the expense of home manufactures," but because the wise men of the period had begun to grapple with the problem of the balance of trade, and warned the King against an export of "siller" to pay for the balls! In 1592 the Town Council of Edinburgh contributed to the "pious gloom of their country" by prohibiting golf on Sunday, and the far-reaching effect of such legislation may still be seen by the traveller of to-day whose misfortune it is to experience a Scotch Sunday.

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And now what is this "royal and ancient" game of golf? A humorist has declared that it consisted in "putting little balls into little holes with instruments very ill adapted to the purpose"—but this description is inadequate. The course, or links, as it is called, over which the game is played, may be of any size, but, if possible, it should be between one and two miles in length, giving room for nine holes from 100 to 500 yards apart on the journey out, and as many more on the return. These holes are four inches in diameter, and are surrounded by a piece of smooth turf called the "putting green." The ball is made of compressed gutta-percha, and is a little less than two inches in diameter, and the clubs used in driving it are of many different sorts and sizes, according to the nature of the ground from which the ball is to be hit and the fancy of the player making the stroke. The aim of the player is to drive the ball into the first hole, and thence into each succeeding hole, in the smallest possible number of strokes; and as the ground between the different "putting greens" is full of "hazards" in the shape of sand holes, bushes, long grass, etc., and the ball—after the first shot—must be hit from the spot where it happens to fall, however rough that spot may be, it is easy to see that the game calls for much skill, both in the hard drives from the starting point and in the more nicely calculated "approach" and "putting" shots nearer the holes.

The exercise is moderate, but still sufficient for the young, and not too violent for the old, and, according to Mr. Balfour (who, by the way, to judge from his contribution to this volume, has a keener enthusiasm for golf than for the Irish question), the game "should be begun as soon as you can walk, and continued as long as you can walk." In respect of the accuracy of stroke, which is so essential to success, the game may be said to resemble the venerable game of *real* (not lawn) tennis, while the short strokes on the putting green may well have suggested the modern game of croquet. Mr. Balfour quotes the complaint of the keeper of a racket court in the neighborhood of an English golf links, that "since this d——d Scotch croquet came into fashion no one comes into the court," as a proof of the superior attraction of the game. Undoubtedly it has the fresh-air advantage, which is a very important one, over any game played in a court; but, on the other hand, in such a climate as ours it could only be played with comfort for a comparatively small part of the year. And yet so excellent a game is it that it is strange that New York, which has become a centre of athletics, and is, moreover, the abiding place of many "gentlemen of the Caledonian persuasion," should not possess a good links. The game is not an expensive one, and it suits so many different tastes that it ought to be cultivated, and we may hope that this book will give it a start. The chapters on Elementary Instruction and Style are admirably illustrated, and give all the necessary technical information, and, but for the well-known aphorism that "nothing is so misleading as facts, except figures," the reader might be inclined to look upon the royal and ancient game as a simple and easy one. But in golf, as in most other games, mediocrity is easy, expert play exceedingly difficult, and this will be the conclusion of the reader when he puts his book-knowledge to the test of practice.

The Lutherans in America. A Story of Struggle, Progress, Influence, and Marvellous Growth. By Edmund Jacob Wolf, D.D. With an Introduction by Henry Eyster Jacobs, D.D. New York: J. A. Hill & Co.

THE keynote of Dr. Wolf's book is struck on his old-fashioned title-page without equivocation. The big drum is beaten in that way all through the twenty following chapters. Dr. Jacobs tells us, in his introduction, that there are "three forms of historical composition, the documentary, the philosophical, and the popular." Dr. Wolf has chosen the last-named as the best suited to his purpose. He has written a panegyric, a glorification, of his sect, in the manner of a Fourth of July oration by the local orator. After some general considerations on the Church, which, if not popular, are certainly not philosophical, we have a chapter on the Reformation which is characteristic of the general manner of the book. Everything is passed over that would detract in any way from the glory of that event. We have not a word about the Anabaptists of Münster and the Peasant War, and the name of Zwingli is not even once mentioned. In a chapter on the formation of the Lutheran Church there is not a hint of any possible defect in its subordination to the State. It is spoken of as if, like the black stone of the Kaaba, it came straight down from heaven moulded by God's hand. Indeed, there is something smacking of impiety in Dr. Wolf's continually recurring claim of supernatural interposition. One should be very deep in the counsels of the Almighty to make his confident assertions.

The coming to America of the Dutch, the Swedish, and the German Lutherans is treated in three separate chapters which have the charm of small and hard beginnings. "The Church of the Dispersion" is the fit naming of a chapter which describes the condition of things before Muhlenberg's unifying spirit blew upon the scene. In the account of Muhlenberg there is no stinting of his rightful praise. The next chapter brings out afresh what every ecclesiastical history of the post-Revolutionary period must needs recite, the disintegration of the churches and theology by the war and by the influence of French ideas. Several chapters are devoted to the formation of the general and independent synods, the General Council, and the United Synod in the South. In the last-named connection, Dr. Bachmann of Charleston, S. C., is perhaps overrated as an ornithologist, while no mention is made of his distinguished part in the convention which passed the South Carolina ordinance of secession. An almost solitary exception to Dr. Wolf's omission of unpleasant matters is his treatment of the attempt of the German Lutherans to make their language the perpetual language of religious ministration.

The obligations of other communions to the Lutheran Church are loudly heralded, but without exaggeration. That Dr. Wolf claims for his Church the credit of the Thirty-nine Articles is evidence that he has the courage of his opinions. In treating of the distinguishing doctrines of the Lutheran Church, Dr. Wolf resents the opinion that one of them is consubstantiation; but in stating the actual belief he makes it precisely that which is commonly understood by consubstantiation, viz, that "there are present with the elements [which remain bread and wine] and received, sacramentally and supernaturally, the body and the blood of the Lord Jesus Christ." The chapter on the numerical strength of the Lutherans will be astonishing to many. In 1780 there were 70 ministers and 300 congregations. In 1885 there were 3,720 ministers and 7,037 congregations. Among the sects the Lutherans rank fourth, the Methodists, Baptists, and Presbyterians outranking them, and in this order. The approximate number of communicants given is 1,099,708. The Presbyterians are allowed 200,000 more, and the Congregationalists less than half as many.

The book is very coarsely made; the coarseness reaching its climax in the numerous illustrations, which have been grubbed together from all quarters, and inserted in the text without any reference to local fitness. Those of buildings are much better than those of persons, but these last are at least amusing. Many of them are made from plates battered by long use or ruined by neglect. One, so bad that it is worth many of the best, is that of Dr. Paul Henkel. But there are several that approximate to its naïve absurdity.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bates, K. L. Hermit Island. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.25.
Besant, Walter. Armorel of Lyonesse, a Romance of To-Day. Harper & Bros.
Chamberlain, B. H. Things Japanese. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.
Coppée, F. The Days of My Youth. Belford Co. 50 cents.
Forbes, Archibald. Havelock. [English Men of Action.] Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Frothingham, O. B. Boston Unitarianism, 1820–1850. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Gardener, Helen H. A Thoughtless Yes. Belford Co. 50 cents.
Gosse, E. Northern Studies. London: Walter Scott; New York: A. Lovell & Co.
Gréville, Henry. Aline: A Novel. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Henley, W. E. Views and Reviews: Essays in Appreciation. Chas. Scribner's Sons.

"Every child in America should have them."—*New England Journal of Education.*

"The 'Young Folks' Cyclopædia' should be in every juvenile library."—*From a Report of the Connecticut Board of Education.*

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BOOKS IN THE FOREIGN AND ANCIENT LANGUAGES. } Subscription to foreign periodicals, Tauchnitz British Authors. Catalogues on application. CARL SCHOENHOF, 144 Tremont St., Boston.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY,

BALTIMORE.

Announcements for the next academic year are now ready, and will be sent on application.

REV. DR. BALLARD, LAFAYETTE College, writes: "Most essential of all must be a good epitome of the Bible, the most important of books. Such a valuable help is supplied in *Books of the Bible Analyzed*, by President Schultze." Have you procured a copy for your home circle? Send 21 cents for it. H. T. FRUEAUFF, Easton, Pa. American News Co. and J. B. Lippincott Co. supply the trade.

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